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THE  
ELEMENTS OF GRAMMAR  
TAUGHT IN ENGLISH;  
WITH QUESTIONS.

BY  
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## PREFACE.

**T**HIS little Work is strictly intended for teachers and learners. The effort has been to lay down the broad, beaten, every-day path, carefully avoiding digressions into the bye-ways and eccentricities of language. For my object was not to make a complete Grammar, or a History of Language, which is useless for learners, but to teach Grammar up to a certain point, steadily keeping in mind the class of persons for whom the work is intended. If any one will take the trouble to follow in order the course marked out for him, he will certainly know in time the main principles and practice of Grammar; the matter being reduced to a mere question of time, and not of intelligence. And this is no visionary prospect: this Work took its rise from questionings in National Schools, and the whole of the first part is merely the writing out in order the answers to questions which have been used already with success. There can be no doubt that in



our Classical Schools also the average attainments would be much greater, if the lower classes were grounded on English Grammar, and taught to compare Latin and Greek with English, to decide in all discrepancies which method of speech is most natural, that is, most in accordance with the original object of communicating thought, and also to explain, when the natural arrangement is not followed, how the gain in clearness or emphasis of that arrangement would be more than counterbalanced by the loss in some other way. There is no subject which does not become interesting when thus hinged on to common life and common practice. At all events, if this little Book shall enable any to test their ground, and give an intelligent account of their work, my object is gained, and I gladly leave to others the more ambitious walks of Philology. The path of the beginner is thorny enough; to clear a part of that will be no mean satisfaction to any one who sympathises with those who have but little time, and desire to make the best use of it.

# ELEMENTS OF GRAMMAR, IN ENGLISH,

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## THE SENTENCE.

### *Subject and Speech-clause, or Predicate.*

No sentence can be without a Subject, and a Predicate or Speech-clause concerning the Subject.

- (1) All language arises from the same necessity of human nature, being a method of making known what passes in the mind. Therefore the impressions to be made known will mould that which is outwardly to represent them.

And the common laws of language will be determined by the necessities which arise directly there is any attempt to make known what passes in the mind.

All languages therefore will have common points of agreement, by whatever names these may be called.

- (2) The first of these is a set of outward tokens whether spoken or written; that is, words.
- 

(1) *Why do you talk?*

(2) *How do you make known notions in talking?*

1

- (3) But words must be arranged so as to have a connected meaning.
  - (4) That is, words must be arranged in Sentences. A sentence being, words arranged so as to have a meaning.
  - (5) That is, every Sentence tells something.
  - (6) But before anything can be told, it is necessary to mention *that concerning which the Speech\* is to be.*
  - (7) Having done this, *the speech concerning it* naturally comes next.
  - (8) Every sentence therefore must contain at the least two things.
  - (9) 1st. *That which is mentioned.*  
2ndly. *The speech concerning it.*  
*'That which is mentioned'* is called '*The Subject.*'
  - (10) *The Speech concerning the Subject* is called '*The Speech-clause or Predicate.*'
- 

- (3) *Will any words taken at random be sufficient?*
- (4) *What is this arrangement called?*
- (5) *How can words convey meaning?*
- (6) *What must be done before anything can be told?*
- (7) *Will that alone make a sentence?*
- (8) *How many things then must there be in a sentence?*
- (9) *What two things?*
- (10) *By what special names are they known?*

\* The word 'Speech' in this work is used as equal to 'that which is spoken or said' in any sentence.

- (11) There cannot therefore be less than two words  
 (12) in a sentence; because nothing can be mentioned in less than one word, and no speech can take place concerning it in less than one  
 (13) word. For instance, 'Man walks,' is as short a Sentence as can be framed.

The Subject '*Man*,' being one word, and the Speech-clause or Predicate '*walks*,' being one word.

- (14) N.B. The question, '*Who or what is mentioned?*' will always return the Subject as its answer.  
 (15) And, '*What is said of the Subject?*' will return the Speech-clause or Predicate.

- (11) *What then is the smallest number of words that can form a sentence?*  
 (12) *Why?*  
 (13) *Give me such a sentence?*  
     *Why is that a sentence?*  
     *What is the Subject?*  
     *What the speech-clause or Predicate?*  
     *Why is man the Subject?*  
     *Why is walks the Speech-clause or Predicate?*  
 (14) *What question will always find out the Subject?*  
 (15) *What question will always find out the Speech-clause or Predicate?*  
     *Ask a question which shall force me to answer the Subject.*  
     *Ask a question which shall force me to answer the Predicate.*

## NOUN AND VERB.

*Man walks.*

No sentence can be without a Noun or something representing a Noun as its Subject.

No sentence can be without a Verb in its Predicate or Speech-clause.

- (16) It is evident that no mention can be made of anything unless it is named.

In Grammar, every thing that is named in one

- (17) word is called a *Noun*. The word 'nomen,' that is, *noun*, in Latin, meaning *Name*.

Nouns, or things named in one word, form a distinct Class of words. Every distinct Class of words is called a Part of Speech.

- (18) The Noun therefore, or Name-form, is a Part of Speech, and every noun can stand as the Subject of a Sentence.

- (19) And no Sentence can be without a Noun, or something representing a noun, as its Subject.

- (16) *Can a thing be mentioned without naming it?*

- (17) *If a thing is named in one word, what part of speech must that word be?*

- (18) *What part of a Sentence can every noun be? Why, &c.?*

- (19) *If a Sentence consists of only two words, what part of speech must one be?*

- (20) But something more than a Subject is wanted for a Sentence, there must be a Speech-clause, or Predicate. That is, something must be said of the Subject.
- (21) If this is done by one word, that word is called a Verb. Verbs, therefore, are words which tell or speak of something.
- (22) Verbs form a distinct Class. The Verb therefore, or Speech-word, is a Part of Speech.
- (23) In the simplest form of Sentence, therefore, the Subject is a Noun, and the Speech-clause, or Predicate, a Verb.
- (24) And\* by definition the Speech-clause must speak of the Subject.
- (25) This then is the simplest form of Subject, one
- (26) Noun, '*Man*;' and the simplest form of Speech-clause, one Verb, '*walks*.'

- (30) *What does a sentence want more than a Subject? What is the Speech-clause or Predicate of this sentence?*  
*Why is it the Speech-clause or Predicate?*
- (31) *What is that word called?*
- (32) *What part of speech then is the word 'walks'?*
- (33) *What parts of speech then at least does every sentence require?*
- (24) *Why?*
- (25) *What part of speech must the Subject always be, or at least represent?*
- (26) *What part of speech will always be in the Speech-clause or Predicate?*

\* See p. 2, question 10.

## NUMBER.

*Man walks, men walk.*

Nouns can show by their form difference of Number, so can Verbs. The Verb therefore must agree with its Subject Noun in Number.

The Plural Number of most Nouns is formed from the Singular by adding *s*, as, Singular 'Horse,' Plural 'Horses.'

- (1) The Noun then is a Name, and as a simple name will only name *one*. But it will be necessary often to name two or more things of the same kind together. It will clearly be convenient to express them all by one word, if possible. Can then the form of the Noun be altered so as to mark this distinction of *one*, or *more than one*, without the addition of any other word to it?

First then of the noun '*Man*.' The *form*

- (2) this word may be altered to '*men*.' And the alteration of *form* does arise from a desire to alter the sense. The word '*man*' naming man as One; the word '*men*' naming more than one.

- (1) *What then is every noun?*
- (2) *We first use a name to mark what?*
- (3) *In the sentence 'man walks,' can the form of the noun alter?*

- (4) The difference therefore conveyed by this change of *form* is a difference of Number. 'Man' denoting One; 'men' denoting more than one.

*The Noun, or Name-form, is said to be in the Singular or Plural Number, according as it*

- (5) *takes one or other of these forms. That is, a noun in the Singular Number shows by its form that it is naming a single one; but in the Plural Number, that it is naming a Plurality, or more than one.*

- (6) Now by definition the Speech-clause, or Predicate, speaks of the Subject; as then the noun by its form shows difference of Number, it is convenient that the Verb, or Speech-word, which speaks of it should be able to show the same.

*There are therefore differences of Number expressed by the form of the Verb. That is, a*

- (4) *What does 'man' mean?*

*What does 'men' mean?*

*What is the difference conveyed by this change?*

- (5) *What is meant by a noun being in the Singular Number?*

*In the Plural?*

*What names then does a noun receive according to the numbers it names?*

- (6) *What has the Speech-clause or Predicate to do with the Subject?*

*Does the word 'walks' point out any number?*



- (7) *verb has a Singular and Plural Number ; showing by its form whether it speaks of one or more than one.*

It is manifest therefore that in any apparent sentence, if the forms of the Noun and Verb do not agree in showing the same numbers,

- (8) *there is no real sentence, as the Speech-clause, or Predicate, is false: for by definition the Speech-clause must speak of the Subject. Whereas, if the form of the Noun denotes one, and the form of the verb more than one, or vice versa, the Speech-clause, or Predicate, does not speak of the Subject; and there is no sentence.*

- (10) *The Verb then, or Speech-word, must agree with its Subject in Number.*

N.B. The word, or words, which name the Subject are generally called the Nominative

- (11) (or naming) case. In this work they will merely be called the Subject-form, or, the

- (7) *Can we alter it so as to point out many ?  
Then a verb has a Singular and Plural Number ?  
And a noun has a Singular and Plural Number ?*

- (8) *What does a sentence consist of ?  
What part of the sentence is the noun 'men' ?  
What part of the sentence is the verb 'walks' ?*

- (9) *Have you any fault to find with 'men walks' ?  
Why ?*

- (10) *What then is the rule about verb and noun ?*

- (11) *What is the word called which names the Subject ?*

Subject; for reasons which will appear further on.

- (12) Also, the Plural Number of most nouns is formed from the Singular by adding *s*, as Sing. 'Horse;' Plur. 'Horses.'
- (9) But in the Verb the addition of *s* always marks the Singular form. Thus 'man walks,' 'men walk;' though the absence of *s* does not always indicate that the verb is Plural.

## PERSON.

*Thou walkest, &c.*

Nouns each represent some Person. Verbs show differences of Person by their form. The Verb therefore must agree with its Subject-noun in Person as well as Number.

- (1) The Sentence then at present stands thus,  
'man walks,' or, 'men walk.'
- (2) Now the word 'man' names any man, and the verb speaks of it. But it is clear that it is
- (3) necessary to be able to speak to some one,

(12) *How is the Plural number of most nouns formed?*

(1) *How many numbers has a verb?*

*And a noun?*

(2) *In the sentence 'man walks,' what person do you speak of as walking?*

(3) *Can you name yourself?*

*Can you speak to a person?*

and also *of yourself*; and the verb manifestly may express these distinctions by its form alone; and it does actually do so.

- (4) For I write, '*man walkest*.' If that is not correct, the verb must convey by its form some  
 (5) notion besides the notion of Number; since  
 (6) as far as number goes it is correct. '*Man*,' one; '*walkest*,' one. The difference is a difference of person. '*Man*,' denoting any person *of* whom; '*walkest*,' denoting a particular person *to* whom, you are speaking; commonly called the second Person.

The verb also shows by its form whether its speech is of the speaker himself, or of any other person whatever.

Thus there are found

I  
 Thou  
 He or man

- (8) all capable of standing as Subjects; and the

- (4) *Is 'man walkest' correct?*  
 (5) *What number is 'man'?*  
     *What number is 'walkest'?*  
     *Then the numbers are right?*  
 (6) *What is there wrong?*  
 (7) *What then does the change of form in the verb express?*  
 (8) *Can you speak of yourself as walking?*  
     *What is this called?*

verb which speaks concerning them, also capable of showing this distinction by its *form*. Thus,

I walk.

Thou walkest.

He walks or walketh.

- (8) There are then three different forms for the  
 (9) Singular Number of a Verb. And according  
 (10) to the *form* it takes, the verb is said to be in the 1st, 2nd, or 3rd Person. That is, the verb denotes by its *form* one speaking

*of himself*  
*to another*  
*of another.*

- Now as it is required to be able to speak of  
*oneself with others, to a second person with*  
 (11) *others, and, of two or more others together,* the verb might show all these distinctions by its *form*, in its Plural Number, or at least must be able to express them without contradiction.

- (9) *Can you point out that a person you speak to is walking?*  
*What is this called?*  
 (10) *Can you speak of any other person as walking?*  
*What is this called?*  
 (11) *Can you speak of these same persons with others?*  
*How many numbers can a verb be in?*  
 (12) *How many times do you mention the verb in going through the Present tense?*

The verb then proceeds as follows :

	Singular.	Plural.
(12)	I walk.	We walk.
	Thou walkest.	You, or ye walk.
	He walketh, or walks.	They walk.

- The verb expressing two differences of Number,  
 (13) and three differences of Person in each Number; in all, six distinctions of sense. In some languages, all these distinctions are shown by  
 (14) distinct *forms*. In English, the Plural has but one form for its three Persons.

It is manifest that every noun spoken of by another is in the 3rd Person; since it is not the speaker, nor a person spoken to.

- (15) It is manifest that the Verb, or Speech-word, must agree with that of which it is to speak in Number and Person.

Corol. No word, or words, can possibly stand as the Subject, which the Verb, or Speech-word, by its *form* shows it does not speak of. Also, whenever words show by their *form* special distinctions, these *forms* cannot be interchanged or disregarded in joining words together, that is, in a Sentence.

- 
- (13) *Do all these denote number?*  
*What do they denote?*

- (14) *Does the form of the verb change for every Person in each number?*

*What are the changes in English?*

- (15) *What rule arises out of these facts?*

## THE ARTICLE.

{ *a man walks.*  
 { *the man walks.*

There are two Articles, 'A,' or 'An,' and 'The.' The Definite Article 'The' limits the sense of the noun to some one known. The Indefinite Article 'A' only limits it to any one of the class named.

In the sentence '*man walks*,' it will be seen that the sense conveyed by the subject '*man*,'

- (1) is very wide; as it means nothing less than '*mankind*,' or all men taken as one race
- (2) or class. But we generally want to speak of individuals, not of a whole class. That is, we want to *limit* the person or thing spoken of to one of a class.
- (3) *Now this is done most markedly by limiting it to some one known, less markedly, to any one of the class.*
- (4) This limitation is made in English by putting a word before the noun limited. This word is called an Article.

*An Article therefore is a word joined to the noun to limit it.*

- (1) *What is the meaning of 'man'?*
- (2) *Do we generally wish to speak so widely?*
- (3) *How can we limit the sense?*
- (4) *What is the word which limits called?*

- (5) *There are two Articles. The word 'The' called the definite or limiting article. The word 'A' called the indefinite or unlimiting article, as it is, if compared with 'The.'* Thus,
- (6) *is, if compared with 'The.'* Thus,

{ *man walks. The class.*  
*The man walks. One marked out of the class.*  
*A man walks. Any one of the class.*

*'The' fixing the limit to the particular one.*

*'A' extending the limit to any one of the class.*

### THE VERB. TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE.

*Man loves a friend. Man walks.*

Verbs are divided into Transitive and Intransitive. In Transitive Verbs the sense passes across from the verb to some noun. In Intransitive Verbs the sense is completed in the verb itself, as, 'Man loves a friend,' Transitive. 'Man walks,' Intransitive.

- (1) In the Sentence '*man walks,*' the Speech-clause, or Predicate, is one word. And it is obvious

- (5) *What is the definite article?*

*Why is it so called?*

- (6) *What is the indefinite article?*

*Why is it so called?*

*Write 'man walks,' and 'man loves a friend.'*

*Are they both sentences, and why?*

- (1) *Is the difference in the Subject or Predicate?*

## THE VERB. TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE. 15

- (2) that the sense of that word is complete in itself, as the action spoken of is a perfect process, namely, walking, finished by the agent, and does not pass on to any other thing. But it is necessary that it should be possible to
- (3) speak of actions not thus complete in themselves, but where the agent acts on, or in relation to, something. The sense passing, as it were, beyond, and out of the verb *across* to some farther point, as, '*Man loves a friend.*' If this is compared with the sentence '*man walks,*' it will be seen that the Speech-clause or Predicate alone is altered, the first Speech-clause being complete in one word, the verb of the second Speech-clause not being thus complete in itself. As, '*Man loves.*'
- (4) The question immediately arises, what? And the sense is incomplete till that is added, for instance, '*a friend.*'
- (5) This, or the like addition, fills up the void, and makes the second Speech-clause as complete as the first. This distinction then in verbs of incompleteness, or com-

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(2) *What is the Speech-clause or Predicate of the first sentence?*

*Is anything wanted besides the verb?*

*Why not?*

(3) *Is the second Speech-clause or Predicate thus complete in one word?*

(4) *What more is wanted?*

(5) *What then is the difference between the two?*



## 16 THE VERB. TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE.

- pleteness, divides them into two great classes, which are called, the one, *Transitive* (or passing across) verbs, as the verb, 'loves,' where the
- (6) sense must *pass across* to the object of love,
  - (7) for instance, 'a friend,' and is not completed
  - (8) till that is added. The other, *Intransitive* (or not passing across) verbs, as the verb 'walks,' where the sense requires no such addition.

*Transitive verbs, therefore, are verbs whose sense passes out of the verb itself across to something beyond; the action being performed by the agent on or toward something else.*

*Intransitive verbs are verbs whose sense is shut up and complete in the verb itself, the action being stated to be finished by the agent himself.*

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### CASE.

*Man loves a friend.*

Words are said to be in a 'case,' when they show by their form dependence on a word which governs them. In English there are two cases properly so called, the Possessive Case and the Dependent Case.

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- (6) *If the sense of a verb is not complete, what must happen?*
  - (7) *What are such verbs called?*
  - (8) *What are verbs called which require no such addition?*

- In the sentence '*man loves a friend*,' there is found first the Name-form, or Noun, or Subject, standing by itself, and then by itself a Speech-clause or Predicate, like a full vessel, made up of two things, a verb which by itself is empty, and a noun which by itself is spilt and lost. There is an intimate relation between the verb and noun, which exists whether the noun shows it by its *form* or not, a dependence of the noun which might be shown by *form* always, and is so in some languages. *Now whenever the Noun is thus dependent, it is said to be in a Case. That is, whenever any word or words depend on another word, the sense of which is incomplete without them, that word or those words are said to be in a 'case,' and the word requiring the addition is said to govern that case.*

- It is clear that all languages require to express much the same dependent relations, but all do not show them by the *form* of the word. The English language does not. It seems the clearest plan to confine the name '*Case*' primarily to *formal Cases*, that is, to Cases marked

- 
- (1) *What does a Transitive verb require?*  
 (2) *When the noun stands thus, what is said of it?*  
 (3) *What is this dependence called?*  
 (4) *What is a Case?*  
 (5) *What is meant by governing a Case?*  
 (6) *How shall we limit the name Case in English?*

by change of form; but where the same *form*, without change, is used in fixed combinations to represent relations which other languages represent by a formal change, as for instance, such a combination as, '*to a friend*,' it is not objectionable to call such combinations, '*Cases*,' and name them as, in those languages, the formal case is named.

Every noun, without change, can stand as the Subject of a Sentence. Hence this *independent* word is, in this work, called the Subject Form. *Dependence*, that is, Case, being properly shown by a deviation from this Form.

- (7) In English there are two formal cases, The *Possessive Case* and *Dependent Case*; as, *Possessive Case*, Friend's, His. *Dependent Case*, Friend, Him.
- (8) In *nouns*, the Possessive case is formed from the Subject form by the addition of ('s) (s with the apostrophe). The dependent case is distinguished from the subject only by its place in the sentence.
- (9) In *Pronouns*, as will be seen better farther on, both cases differ from the Subject form.

Examples of the two cases:

man loves a friend.

man loves a friend's counsel.

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(7) *How many cases are there?*

(8) *How is the Possessive Case formed?*

(9) *What marks the Dependent Case?*

To be parsed, or given account of, as follows :

*'Friend.'* The Dependent case, Singular Number, from the Subject form *'friend,'* governed by the Transitive verb *'loves.'*

*'Friends.'* The Possessive case, Singular Number, from the Subject form *'friend,'* governed by the noun *'counsel.'*

Examples of other dependent relations which some languages express *formally*, are

*'Liberality to a friend.'*

*'The stars in heaven.'*

*'Poems by Southey.'*

*'Emigrants from Ireland.'*

Combinations which may be thus parsed :

*'To a friend.'* Friend, Dependent case governed by *to* denoting receptive object; the combined expression representing the Receptive or Dative Case.

*'From Ireland,'* in like manner, may be said to represent an Ablative case. Note, Ablative means *'taking away.'*

*'By Southey,'* also may be called an Instrumental case; and *'In heaven,'* a Local Case, if it is considered desirable to extend the Nomenclature.

The Possessive case, in the Plural Number, is only marked by the apostrophe (') after the *s*. The Subject form is used in addressing a person. A noun then is complete, as in the following example :

## 22 THE PREPOSITION OR CASE-LINK.

The words '*To*,' '*from*,' '*in*,' '*towards*,' are Prepositions or Case-links, linking the word '*friend*' on to the word '*liberality*,' and showing a particular dependent relation thereby. Prepositions or Case-links, therefore, are an extension of the principle that gives rise to *formal* cases: for Case-links denote, as separate words, a dependent relation of one word on another, whilst *formal* Cases denote it by change of *form*. Prepositions, or Case-links, are said to govern the dependent word *after* the word preceding them. They come between the governing and governed word, and denote the relation of the one to the other.

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### THE ADJECTIVE.

*A good man loves a wise liberality.*

Adjectives are joined to nouns to show the sort or quality of the noun, as, 'A good man.'

In English, Adjectives do not change their form to show either Number, Person, Case, or Gender. Adjectives are said to agree with the noun to which they are joined.

The Sentence at present stands thus, '*Man loves liberality to a friend*.' And it has already been shown that any noun may be limited by

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(5) *What are Prepositions?*

(6) *How do they stand in a sentence?*

- (1) an Article, either to some particular one of a class, or to any one of a class. Still however the sense is very wide, no knowledge concerning the sort of class, or the sort of individual, is given by these limitations. There is a further need.
- (2) A speaker often does want to show *the sort of class, the sort of individual*. For instance, in the sentence, '*A man loves liberality*,' this is not strictly true; all men do not. The true sense requires a limitation to *the sort of man*; for instance, '*A good man loves*.' Again, the good man does not love any liberality, that too must be qualified; for instance, *a wise liberality*. These words which limit *to the sort or quality* are called *Adjectives*, that is, words added.

Their principle of construction is evident, namely, that their form, if varied, must not be

- (6) inconsistent with the formal peculiarities of the nouns they are added to.
- (7) In English the Adjective has no change of form.

- 
- (1) *What is the duty of an Article?*
  - (2) *Does it tell us the sort or quality of the noun?*
  - (3) *What need does not the Article supply?*
  - (4) *What limiting words supply it?*
  - (5) *What are Adjectives?*
  - (6) *To what are they added?*
  - (7) *Do they change their form?*

- (8) When joined to the noun they are said to agree with the noun. Some languages change the form of their Adjectives to correspond to every formal change of the nouns they agree with, whether of Number or Case. The noun also can show sometimes whether that of which it is the Name-form is male or female; in some instances by its form, as 'Actor,' 'Actress.' That is, it can denote Gender. Adjectives, however, do not change their form for this either in the English language.

When a noun is the name of a male, it is said to be of the Masculine Gender, when it is the name of a female, it is said to be of the Feminine Gender. Those things which are not spoken of as Male or Female, are said to be of the Neuter Gender. The word Neuter meaning *neither*, that is, neither Masculine nor Feminine.

*An Adjective therefore shows the sort or quality of the noun it agrees with, and does not change its form in the English language.*

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## ADVERBS.

*Good men greatly love counsel.*

Adverbs are joined to verbs principally, but also to adjectives and other adverbs, to show

- 
- (8) *What is their being added to the noun called?*

the sort or degree of the verb, adjective, or adverb, as, 'Greatly loves.'

At present then there is a Subject qualified if need be, and a Speech-clause or Predicate made up of a verb with its case, the case also qualified if need be; as, '*Good men love wise counsel.*' Here there are additions made to the nouns but not to the verb. Yet as the main difference between a noun and a verb often is, that a noun denotes by a name that which is, whilst a verb states it as belonging to something; a verb being but a noun stated of something, as noun, '*counsel*;' verb, '*to counsel*,' the noun stated; it is clear that the same necessity which requires the limitation of the noun extends to the verb also, and requires that *the sort or degree* of that which is stated by the verb or Speech-word should be mentioned also. Thus, '*Good men love counsel*,' but in what degree, '*greatly love it.*' Thus

- (1) there are words showing the sort or degree of
- (2) that which is stated added to verbs, as there are words showing the quality or sort of that
- (3) which is named added to the noun. These words are called *Adverbs*. *Adverbs, therefore,*

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(1) *Is the Verb ever qualified?*

(2) *Why should it be?*

(3) *What are Adverbs?*

(4) *How are they like Adjectives?*



*are words added to verbs to limit the action spoken of to its proper sort or degree.*

---

### DEGREE IN ADJECTIVES.

*Quick, quicker, quickest.*

The original form of an Adjective is said to be in the Positive Degree, as, *great*: when *er* is added, it is said to be in the Comparative Degree, as being comparatively more, as, *greater*; and when *est* is added, the Adjective is said to be in the Superlative Degree, as being superlatively, or beyond measure most, as, *greatest*. The adverbs *more* and *most* are frequently added to Adjectives to express these degrees, the form of the Adjective remaining unchanged.

- (1) In Adjectives also the degree of quality as to more or less is often required to be expressed.
- (2) Adjectives sometimes express degree formally; as, *quick, quicker, quickest*. The Adjective is then said to be in the *Positive, Comparative, or Superlative degree*. The affixing '*er*' to the original form, generally marking the Comparative degree, and the affixing '*est*' marking

- 
- (1) *Adjectives tell us the quality, the same quality belongs to some things more, to others less, is this ever expressed?*
  - (2) *How is it expressed formally?*

- the Superlative degree. Sometimes, however,
- (3) Adverbs are joined to Adjectives to express either these degrees, or the finer shades of distinction; as, *quick, more quick, most quick; quick, much quicker, far quickest*. Adverbs also are sometimes joined to Adverbs, as, *far more; very much more, &c.* The Adverbs that most frequently express degree in Adjectives are, the word '*more*' to express Comparative Degree; and the word '*most*' to express Superlative Degree.

## TENSE OR TIME-FORM.

<i>The man</i>	{	<i>loves</i>	<i>love counsel.</i>
		<i>loved</i>	
		<i>will</i>	
		<i>or</i>	
		<i>shall</i>	

A verb is said to be in a Tense; first, when its form denotes the Time of the action spoken of; and secondly, when other verbs, called auxiliary verbs, are added to the principal verb to show Time.

One great class of verbs in English shows

- (3) *Is it ever expressed in any other way?*  
*Did we see anything like this with respect to cases?*  
*What analogy is there between Prepositions and*  
*Adverbs?*

Past Time by adding *d* or *ed* to the form which shows Present Time. These verbs are often called Regular Verbs, or the tense is called the Modern form, as, 'I love,' Present Tense; 'I loved,' Past Tense.

Another great class shows Past Time by changing the central vowel or vowels of the Present Tense. These verbs are often called Irregular Verbs, or the tense is called the Ancient Form; as, 'I ride,' Present Tense; 'I rode,' Past Tense.

The auxiliary verbs which show Future Time are the verbs *Shall* and *Will*. Auxiliary verbs of Present and Past Time are the tenses of the verbs *To be*, *To do*, and *To have*.

- (1) It is manifest that when anything is spoken of, it must be represented as belonging to some
- (2) Time, either to Past, or Present, or Future Time, and language must show this somehow or other. Now Verbs are the speech-words
- (3) which speak of things. It is probable, there-
- (4) fore, that at least the broad distinctions of Time will be shown by the form of the Verb or speech-word, whilst adverbs of Time, or some other artifice, will be employed for the

---

(1) *Can anything be spoken of apart from Time?*

(2) *What are the great divisions of Time?*

(3) *What words speak of things?*

(4) *What is probable then concerning these words?*

- (5) *less common wants.* In English, Past and Present Time is shown formally; and the Verb is said to be in the Past, or Present Tense, or Time-form, according as its *form* shows Past or Present Time. (Tense means Time, from the Latin word for Time, Tempus.) One great class of Verbs in English shows Past Time by adding 'd' or 'ed' to the Present Time-form; as, Present Tense, or Time-form, 'I love;' Past Tense, 'I loved;' Present Tense, 'I call;' Past Tense, 'I called.'

Another great class shows Time by changing the central Vowels; as, Present Tense, 'I ride;' Past Tense, 'I rode.'

Thus in the sentence, '*man loves counsel*,' the verb 'loves' shows by its *form* the Time of loving; that is, the verb 'loves' is in a Tense, the Present Tense.

And in the sentence, '*the man loved counsel*,' the verb 'loved,' also shows by its *form* the Time of loving; that is, the verb 'loved' is in a Tense, the Past Tense.

With respect to Future Time, it is clear that our minds can imagine it; but that, strictly speaking, there is no future Time. The utmost that is strictly correct, is a strong *present* certainty in the mind that an event will here-

- 
- (5) *Is this really the case?*  
 (6) *How is Past Time shown?*  
 (7) *What is the meaning of Tense?*

after take place. The Future therefore, in strict speech, is reduced to a *present* mental impression, however strong, and has no positive existence, as the Past once had, and the Present has. Now, undoubtedly, the most convenient method, is to treat Future Time as positive, and denote it by a *formal* change (many languages do this); but the most correct, is to express it as the mental impression that it really is, by the addition of other words, as in English.

*The man shall or will go.*

- (8) *Future Time, in English, is expressed by the original form or root of the verb, with the*  
 (9) *addition of one of two words, both of which denote the mental impression; the word 'will,' which denotes the speaker's conviction of the*  
 (10) *will employed, and the word 'shall,' which denotes his conviction of the obligation. Thus we have a combination representing Future Time, or a Future Tense.*

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Shall} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{will} \end{array} \right. \text{ go,}$$

or  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{I shall} \\ \text{you will} \end{array} \right. \text{ go. Expressions representing your and my going at some future time.}$

- 
- (8) *How does the English language express Future Time?*  
 (9) *What is the sense of 'will'?*  
 (10) *Of 'shall'?*

It seems best to parse; that is, give a grammatical account of these words separately, as follows:

'Shall,' Singular Number, first person, present tense, joined as an auxiliary or helping verb to the word '*go*;' and '*will*,' in like manner.

'Go,' original form or root of verb 'to go,' 'I shall go,' &c., combination representing future tense.

Both these verbs, '*shall*' and '*will*,' as auxiliaries, express the *present* conviction of a future event, with this difference of sense. In speaking of yourself, your own '*will*' you are certain of;

- (11) the auxiliary expressing '*will*' is therefore the
- (12) *strongest* word. In speaking of any other but yourself, the necessity or *obligation* from without, not his '*will*,' is what you are most certain of;
- (13) therefore the auxiliary expressing conviction of necessity or *obligation* is strongest.
- (14) Thus, 'I *will* go,' expressing your decided *will* is stronger than, 'I *shall* go,' merely expressing some obligation to do so. But 'you *shall* go,' expressing the speaker's conviction that the *obligation* is sufficient to enforce the action is stronger than 'you *will* go,' which merely expresses his notion of the '*will*' of

- (11) *In speaking of yourself, which is strongest?*
- (12) *Why?*
- (13) *In speaking of another, which is strongest?*
- (14) *Why?*

- (14) another of which he is no sure judge. N.B. The verbs *shall*, and *will*, when auxiliaries, never denote anything but *Tense*. A verb then is said to be in a tense; first, when its form denotes the time of the action spoken of. And secondly, when other verbs, called auxiliary or helping verbs, are added to the original form or root of the principal verb, to show distinctions of Time, the combined expression may also be called a *Tense* or *Time-form*.

- Before we proceed, let it be observed that all auxiliary or helping verbs are originally and properly separate verbs by themselves, with their own separate verbal sense, and are in constant use in this their original and proper duty, as will be explained hereafter.

- (15) *What is the first and most correct sense of Tense?*  
 (16) *What is its secondary sense?*  
 (17) *What are 'shall' and 'will' called when they form a Tense?*  
 (18) *Do they ever as auxiliaries denote anything besides Time?*  
 (19) *What are auxiliary verbs properly?*

## THE PARTICIPLE.

*Loving, or having loved, a friend.*

The verb has a form called a Participle.

There is a Participle of Present Time, and a Participle of Past Time.

The Present Participle is generally formed by adding '*ing*' to the root of the verb, as root, 'To love;' Present Participle, 'Loving.'

The Past Participle is a combination of the auxiliary '*having*,' with a Participle formed from the root by adding *d* or *ed*, as, 'Having loved,' Past Participle of the verb 'To love.'

- (1) Verbs have a form which in sense differs from
- (2) an adjective only by the addition of the notion
- (3) of Time, Present or Past, and by the power of governing the same case as its verb. This form is called a Participle. Thus, 'A *loving* friend.'
- (4) '*Loving*,' is the Present Participle from the verb 'to love;' denoting, like an adjective, the quality or sort of friend, but moreover telling the *Time*, such as the present time. The present Participle can also govern the same case as its Verb. As, 'His friend *loving him* much,' &c.; where the word '*him*,' is the de-

- 
- (1) *What is a Participle?*
  - (2) *How does it differ from an Adjective?*
  - (3) *How is it like a Verb?*



pendent case after the Present Participle 'loving,' and denotes the object of love.

- (4) There is also a Participle of Past Time, or Past Participle; as, '*having loved him.*' The words '*having loved,*' are the Past Participle of the verb 'to love.' This Participle is formed by combining the auxiliary 'having,' with a Participle formed from the root by adding 'd' or 'ed,' but not used out of combination with a Transitive sense.

*Participles, therefore, are Adjectives with the addition of the notion of time, and a power of governing a case. Participles are generally*

- (5) *formed from the original form or root of the*  
 (6) *verb, by adding 'ing' for Present Time, 'ed' or 'd,' with an auxiliary for Past Time.*

### TENSE OR TIME-FORM.

COMBINATIONS. '*I am loving,*' &c.

In treating of the Future Tense we found it

- (1) was made up of the root of the principal verb and another verb assisting as auxiliary to it.  
 (2) This same plan is followed for other distinc-

(4) *How many Participles are there?*

(5) *How is the Present Participle generally formed?*

(6) *How is the Past?*

(1) *How was the Future Tense made up?*

(2) *Are other tenses supplied thus?*

- tions of Time, which some languages express *formally*. In the principal verb, the root or original form, the Present Participle, and the verbal form employed in making up the Past Participle, are used in combination with auxiliary verbs. The verbal form in such combinations, governing a case if its verb governs a case. The verbs combined with them as auxiliaries are,

I am	}	<i>Present Tense.</i>
I was		
I do	}	<i>Present</i> . .
I did		
I have	}	<i>Present</i> . .
I had		

And they are employed as follows :

- (1) *Present Tense* and *representing Present*.

I love = General Notion.

- (2) I am loving = Emphatic Present Time.

I do love = Emphatic Present Action.

- (3) *What parts of the verb are joined with auxiliaries to express Time?*  
 (4) *What auxiliaries are used?*  
 (5) *What is the force of 'am' and 'have' in these combinations?*  
 (6) *What is the force of 'do'?*  
 (7) *What Present Tenses are there?*  
 (8) *How do they differ in sense?*

- (10) *Combination representing Imperfect Tense.*

I was loving.

- (11) *Past Tense and representing Past.*

I loved = General Notion.

I have loved = Emphatic Past Time, or Perfect.

I did love = Emphatic Past Action.

I had loved = Completed Action, or Pluperfect.

- (5) In these Combinations, 'Am' and 'Have,' throw emphasis on the Time; whilst 'Do,' and 'Did,'

- (6) throw emphasis on the Action spoken of. In giving an account therefore of a word in any Tense, it would be well to mark the tense as it is done in the Table, according to these distinctions.

- (9) Thus in the combination, 'I am loving,' after going through the words separately, say, 'Combination of Emphatic Time, Present Tense.'

There are other combinations which might be included under the head of Tenses, but which fall sufficiently under the rules of ordinary construction to need no separate notice. As, 'I have been writing,' denoting *continuance* of Past Action. The Parsing of which, however, more properly belongs to the verb 'To be.' 'I am going to write,' in like manner rather belonging to the verb 'To go,' &c.

- 
- (9) *How would you give an account of one of these combinations?*

- (10) *What is the Imperfect Tense?*

- (11) *Name and explain the Past Tenses.*

*The auxiliary verb 'I am,' and its Tenses, can be*

- (2) *joined to any adjective or noun, with no proper sense of its own, but only with the effect of*
- (1) *making such adjective or noun stand as a proper Speech-clause, or Predicate. Thus,*

- |     |         |   |  |
|-----|---------|---|--|
| (3) | The man | { | is alive, equalling, he lives.<br>is rich.<br>is great.<br>is, &c. |
|-----|---------|---|--|

#### The Verb Substantive (of Existence).

- (1) *The verb 'I am,' and its tenses in its original*
- (2) *sense denotes 'existence,' and is therefore called*
- (3) *the Verb Substantive, or Verb of 'existence;'*
- (5) *and, when thus used, stands by itself as the*
- (4) *Speech-clause or Predicate. As, 'The world is,' that is, 'exists;'*
- 'Time was,' that is, did 'exist.'*

- (1) *Can any Adjective or Noun stand as a Predicate?*
- (2) *How is this managed?*
- (3) *What Part of Speech does the combined expression represent?*

- (1) *What is the original sense of the verb 'to be'?*
- (2) *What is that verb then called?*
- (3) *Why?*
- (4) *How will you recognize the Verb Substantive in a Sentence?*
- (5) *Is it right to call it auxiliary in such a position? Why not?*

- (6) *The verbs 'have,' and 'do,' when not auxiliary*  
 (7) *are transitive, and require a case, and are thus easily distinguishable. As, 'I do my duty;' 'I have the money.'*
- 

### THE CONJUNCTION.

*And, &c.*

Conjunctions are words which join sentences, clauses of sentences, or single words together, as, 'The horse *and* dog.'

The simple sentence must at least consist of a noun and a verb. And these or their substitutes are the ground-work of *all* sentences. And by definition the noun names, whilst the verb speaks of that which is named. The noun being a Name-word, and the verb a Speech-word. The noun is capable of showing Number and Person; the verb by its *form* denotes both. It follows therefore that in a sentence, as the verb speaks of the noun, these *forms* must not contradict each other. The noun, moreover, may be limited by articles, qualified by adjectives; whilst adjectives may in turn be

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- (6) *When the verbs 'have' or 'do' are not auxiliary, what are they?*  
 (7) *How will you distinguish between their two offices?*

modified by adverbs. The verb may be qualified by adverbs, and moreover denotes by *form* or otherwise a Time, it may also require a Case, and the Case in turn may be limited and qualified by articles and adjectives. So far of the simple Sentence. But it is mani-

- (1) fest that we require in practice not only to be able to tell a single fact, but to tell a series of facts. Thus we may not only wish to say, 'Men love liberality,' but that 'they also love bravery, and hate cowardice.' This constantly recurring necessity gives rise to a set of words whose work is to act as bondwords, binding
- (2) together words or sentences. These words are called Conjunctions (that is, conjoiners, joiners-together). The most common of these
- (3) are the words '*And*' and '*But*.' '*And*' joining together *like* things, '*But*' joining *unlike*.
- (4) Whence '*But*' is sometimes called a disjunctive particle; because, though it *joins the words or sentences*, it *disjoins the notions and marks a difference between them*. Other conjunctions are, *Also*, *Either—or*, *Neither—nor*, *Though*, *Although*, *That*, *Therefore*, *Than*, &c.

- 
- (1) *How can we connect a number of statements together?*
- (2) *What are the words called which join words or sentences?*
- (3) *What are the two most common conjunctions?*
- (4) *How does 'but' differ from 'and'?*

The whole class of words denoting relations of Time or Place. *As*, of Time, *Before*, *Afterwards*, *Until*, *Then*, *When*, *Since*; and of Place, *There*, *Here*, *Where*, *Hence*, *Whence*, &c., are constantly used as Conjunctions, and merely join two clauses together with respect to their mutual relation in Time or Place. *As*, 'Before he came nothing prospered.' The particle 'before,' joins the notion of prosperity with his coming. 'Where he bowed, there he fell.'

- The particles of Place join the notion of his  
 (6) bowing and falling together. If the sense of the particle stops at the verb and belongs to it alone, it is an adverb, but if it goes on to  
 (6) any further point joining the two, it cannot be right to call it anything but a Conjunction.

'*Than*' is strictly a conjunction, and never correctly governs a case.

- (7) Conjunctive forms often govern cases, and  
 (8) must then be called Prepositions or Case-links.  
*Conjunctions therefore are particles which bind together words and sentences. No Conjunction can govern a Case, though some words are used in one place as Conjunctions, in another as Pre-*

- (5) *Are any words conjunctions in one place and adverbs in another?*  
 (6) *How will you distinguish which they are?*  
 (7) *Do conjunctive forms ever govern cases?*  
 (8) *What Parts of Speech are such words then?*

*positions or Case-links. Care therefore must be taken to give them their proper name in each instance, whether Conjunction, Adverb, or Preposition.*

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## PRONOUNS.

*I, Thou, Who, &c.*

Pronouns are words which stand instead of nouns.

Pronouns are classed in the following divisions :

Personal Pronouns, *I, Thou, He, She, It.*

Relative Pronouns, *Who, Which, That.*

Demonstrative Pronouns, *This, That.*

Interrogative Pronouns, *Who? Which? What?*

Some pronouns have formal cases.

- (1) Again, directly we begin to make many statements concerning the same Subject, it is extremely awkward to repeat the subject or noun in every instance, though to leave it out would often cause complete uncertainty and
  - (2) confusion. This necessity gives rise to a set
- 

- (1) *Do we never wish to make more than one statement concerning a thing?*
- (2) *Do you repeat the noun every time?*
- (3) *Then you must have something instead of it?*



- (4) of substitutes for nouns, or Pro-nouns, which stand in the place of the Subject, or point back to it. Those words which stand in the place of the name, whether Person, or Thing, which is the real Subject, are called Personal
- (6) Pro-nouns, (that is, For-names,) and have formal Cases and Numbers. The Personal Pronouns are:

	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Subject Form</i>	I	We.
<i>Possessive Case</i>	my, or mine	our, or ours.
<i>Dependent Case</i>	me	us.
<i>Subject Form</i>	Thou	You, or Ye.
<i>Possessive Case</i>	thy, or thine	your, or yours.
<i>Dependent Case</i>	thee	you.
<i>Subject Form</i>	He	They.
<i>Possessive Case</i>	his	their, or theirs.
<i>Dependent Case</i>	him	them.
<i>Subject Form</i>	She	They.
<i>Possessive Case</i>	her, or hers	their, or theirs.
<i>Dependent Case</i>	her	them.
<i>Subject Form</i>	It	They.
<i>Possessive Case</i>	its	their, or theirs.
<i>Dependent Case</i>	it	them.

---

(4) *What is this Substitute called ?*

(6) *What is a Personal Pronoun ?*

(6) *Has it cases ?*

*Who, Which, That.*

- (7) The forms *Ours, Yours, Mine, Thine, &c.*, it is perhaps best to consider as Possessive Cases, not however joined with their governing nouns, but capable of standing separate from them. As, 'The coat is yours.' 'He has both my hat and yours.' All the Possessive cases of the Personal Pronouns are by some considered Adjectives. Besides these Personal Pronouns, there are
- (8) others which do not exactly stand in the place of nouns, but point or relate to them. For Personal Pronouns stand instead of, and
- (9) represent the actual noun, as an agent in the place of his principal; whereas, these merely *relate* to it as being of such and such a character. Hence they are called Relative Pronouns. The Relative Pronoun will be in
- (10) whatever case the noun it refers to would be in if repeated. The word to which they relate is called the Antecedent, or before-going word. The Relative Pronouns are *Who, Which, That, and What*. '*What*,' has no for-

(7) *What is the difference between its two Possessive cases?*

(8) *What are Relative Pronouns?*

(9) *How do they differ from Personal Pronouns?*

(10) *What case will Relative Pronouns be in in any instance?*

*What is the word they relate to called, and why?*

mal cases; it is equivalent to '*That which*,' '*Who*,' '*Which*,' and '*That*,' are thus declined, or changed formally.

Singular and Plural.

<i>Subject Form</i>	Who	} of persons.
<i>Possessive Case</i>	whose, and of whom	
<i>Dependent Case</i>	whom	

<i>Subject Form</i>	Which	} of things.
<i>Possessive Case</i>	whose, and of which	
<i>Dependent Case</i>	which	

<i>Subject Form</i>	That	} of things and persons.
<i>Possessive Case</i>	of that	
<i>Dependent Case</i>	that	

'*Which*,' and '*That*,' can also be joined to nouns like Adjectives.

*This, That, &c.*

- (11) Moreover, there are adjective Pronouns which point out or demonstrate special things; hence called Demonstrative, or *pointing-out* Pronouns. These are,
- (12) '*This*,' demonstrating a near object.  
 '*That*,' demonstrating one farther off.  
 These two words show Number by form, but have no change for Case. Thus:

---

(11) *What are Demonstrative Pronouns?*

(12) *What is the difference between 'this' and 'that'?*

Singular.	Plural.
This	These.
That	Those.

The words '*Such*,' and '*Same*,' may also be considered demonstrative Pronouns in many instances.

'*Such*' is often used with other Adjectives in a manner that might seem Adverbial, but it is better to consider it Adjectival; as, '*such heavy weights*.'

Neither of these two words have any formal change.

- (13) Other Pronouns are Interrogative, or Question-askers. These are :

(14)	Of Persons	{	Who? General question re- quiring as answer	{	He, or she, or some noun for which he or she might stand.
	Persons or Things	{	Which? Parti- cular, &c.	{	Some one or some- thing selected from two or more.
		{	What? General, &c.	{	It, &c.

When the Noun is expressed, '*What*,' is used for '*Who*;' as, '*What man*?' equivalent to '*Who*?' When the question requires a selection, '*which*' is to be used.

- 
- (13) *What are Interrogative Pronouns?*

- (14) *Name them, and distinguish between them.*

The sense alone will determine to what class of Pronouns these forms belong, as the same form can often stand with different powers; as,

‘Who did it?’ Interrogative Pronoun.

‘He, who did it, is gone.’ Relative Pronoun.

### *Numerals.*

‘Hence,’ and ‘Whence,’ are not unfrequently used as Pronouns; as, ‘From hence arises the custom,’ &c. equivalent to, ‘From this quarter.’ ‘From whence come wars,’ &c.; that is, ‘From what quarter?’ All words of Number are, strictly speaking, Pronouns; as, *One, Two, Each, Many, &c.*

- (15) Numerals, or words of Number, are divided
- (16) into two Classes, called Cardinal, and Ordinal.
- (17) Cardinal Numerals, are those which name the quantity; as, *One, Two, Three, &c.*
- (18) Ordinal Numerals, are those which name the place, or order of Numbers, with reference to each other; as, *First, Second, Third, &c.*

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(15) *What are Numerals?*

(16) *How divided?*

(17) *What are Cardinal Numbers?*

(18) *What Ordinal?*

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## OF MOOD.

*The Indicative or Fact-mood, 'man walks.'*

The verb is said to be in a Mood, when it shews the manner in which action or existence is viewed.

The Moods are, the Indicative or Fact-mood, which states a thing as a Positive Fact, as, 'He goes.'

The Subjunctive Mood, which represents the notions of supposition, uncertainty, or dependence, with respect to the thing spoken of, as 'Were he to go.'

The Imperative, which Commands, as, 'Go.'

The root or original form of the verb is also said to be in a Mood, the Infinitive Mood, as, 'To Go.'

To return to the Verb. The verb is a speech-word; and in speaking of anything, as we have seen, Time must be implied, which gives rise to the Tenses or Time-forms of the Verb. Moreover, we must be able to point out not only the time, but the manner, or mode in which these things present themselves to the view; to show, for instance, whether a thing is viewed as actually doing, or done; or only viewed as possible, or as an entirely imaginary

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*When we say, 'man walks,' do we state a certain fact, or imagine what might be?*

- (1) case, and so on. This showing the manner,  
(2) or mode, or mood, (for the words are the same) belongs naturally to the verb, for the verb speaks of action or existence; the manner therefore of action or existence would appear to fall into its province. Now, as this showing the point of view is an invariable necessity, every language must express it somehow, whether formally or not. There must be moods; that is, there must be some way of showing the view taken of action, especially as to its dependence or independence; that is, of showing whether a thing is viewed as an independent certain fact, or as dependent on some condition or other. Hitherto we have viewed every sentence as containing a simple statement of fact; that is, speaking of something as actually doing, actually done, or actually to be done; as, 'I walk,' 'I walked,' or 'I will walk.' And the verb shows this of  
(3) itself. This is called the Verb being in the Indicative or Fact-mood. That is, the Verb throughout a set of Tenses indicates the mode of action; that it is an independent and certain fact, though there is no formal change here for Mood; the original form of the Verb

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- (1) *What part of the sentence shows this?*  
(2) *What is the showing the manner of action called?*  
(3) *When the verb states an independent fact, what is that called?*

being used throughout as adapted for the Speech-clause of a Sentence. *The Fact-mood therefore, or Indicative, speaks of a thing as a certain independent fact.*

- (1) In English there is but one Formal Mood, in
- (2) one Tense only, but the want is supplied when necessary, by the use of auxiliary verbs.

These auxiliary verbs are, originally, separate verbs by themselves, with their own separate verbal sense, which, to avoid confusion, it will be important to mark clearly at first.

- (3) The verbs used as verbs of mood, are,
- (4) (6) *Present Tense* { *Shall*—never denoting mood,  
only tense.
- (5) *Past* . . . { *should*.
- (4) *Present* . . . { *will*—never denoting mood,  
only tense. (6)
- (5) *Past* . . . { *would*.
- (4) *Present* . . . { *can*—never denoting mood.
- (5) *Past* . . . { *could*.
- Present* . . . { *may*.
- Past* . . . { *might*.

- 
- (1) *Is there any formal mood in English?*
  - (2) *How are the other moods shown?*
  - (3) *What are the auxiliary verbs of mood?*
  - (4) *Do 'shall,' 'will,' or 'can,' ever denote mood?*
  - (5) *What parts of those verbs do?*
  - (6) *Are 'shall' and 'will' ever auxiliaries?*  
*What do they then denote?*  
*Question on the original sense of these words.*



The original and proper sense of these verbs is as follows :

'*Can*' and '*could*' denote the *power* of their Subject. Thus, 'he can go,' equals, 'he is able to go;' 'he could go,' equals, 'he was able.'

'*May*' and '*might*' denote permission. Thus, 'he may go,' equals, 'he is permitted;' 'he might go,' equals, 'he was permitted.'

As 'having the power,' and 'being permitted,' are nearly the same thing, the former implying that there is no obstacle internal or external, the latter, that there is no external obstacle, '*may*' and '*can*' only differ in degree; '*can*' being rather the stronger expression. In many instances they are interchangeable, and where there is a distinction, it rather arises from '*can*' implying power in the agent, '*may*,' permission from without.

'*Shall*' and '*should*' denote necessity, whether outward compulsion, or the inward compulsion of duty.

Thus :

'He shall go,' equals, 'He of necessity is to go.'

'He should go,' equals, 'He ought to go.'

'*Will*' and '*would*' denote the will or preference of the Subject.

Thus :

'He will do it,' equals, 'He chooses, he is determined to do it.'

'He would do it,' equals, 'He chose, he was determined to do it.'

'Would' sometimes expresses custom. As,  
'When young he would ride constantly,'  
equalling, 'He was accustomed to,' &c.

'Would' sometimes expresses a wish. As, 'I  
would you heard it.'

From this usage it has passed into a mere ex-  
clamation of wishing. As,

'Would the custom vanish with my life,' equal-  
ling, 'O that, &c.'

Whenever these verbs have these direct and  
positive meanings, they are not auxiliary  
verbs, but stand by themselves in the Fact-  
mood or Indicative.

*The Infinitive.* 'To walk,' &c.

- (1) The original form or root of the verb itself, is
- (2) also said to be in a mood, though not with  
strict correctness, just as the Subject-form of  
the noun is called a Case, though not properly  
a Case. It is called the Infinitive mood, (thus,  
'To walk,' 'To love,' 'To hate,' are Infinitive  
Moods,) or the Mood which denotes the sense  
of the verb *infinitively*, that is, without limita-  
tions of Time, Person, Number, &c., as it
- (3) merely denotes the sense itself apart from all

(1) *What do you mean by the root of the verb?*

(2) *Is it properly a mood?*

*Why not? Because it tells nothing of the manner  
in which the action is viewed as taking place.*

(3) *What does it do?*

- (4) conditions. The Case-link, or Preposition 'to,' is the token of the Infinitive Mood, and serves to link it on in the sentence, when necessary, to whatever word it is joined with. Thus the Infinitive Mood, as denoting a simple notion, is very closely akin to a noun, and frequently stands as a noun in a sentence, there being but little difference between the Infinitive or unlimited verbal notion by itself, and its kindred noun, between, for instance, '*To see*' and '*Sight*,' excepting that the Infinitive 'to see,' as its name shows, denotes the most unlimited and general notion of seeing, and cannot, accordingly, be used in speaking of an individual instance. Thus, '*your to see*' is wrong. Whereas, '*sight*' is applicable to the individual, as '*your sight*.' The expressions are interchangeable in many instances, but always with this limitation, that directly a particular
- (5) is mentioned, the noun, not the infinitive, must be used. The Infinitive is also constantly used after the auxiliary verbs, to represent modifications of Time and Mood.
- (4) For it is obvious, that as *Formal* changes would branch off from the root, any substitute for formal changes would naturally be some

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- (4) *How is it used in the sentence?*  
 (5) *Does it ever represent a noun?*  
 (6) *How does an Infinitive used as a noun differ from a common noun?*

combination with the root; and auxiliaries merely represent separately those varieties of sense which formal changes would represent without separation.

*be Subjunctive. 'If I might run, I should,' &c.*

- Again, it is obvious that a very large class of our impressions do not present themselves to the mind as facts, or certainties, but as possibilities, probabilities, conditionals, suppositions, &c., all with one common notion of more or less uncertainty and dependence. To make a broad statement, it is necessary to be able not only to make known a straightforward
- ) fact, but also the manner in which anything may be conceived as possible by the mind, or viewed with respect to conditions. Everything not stated as a positive actual fact, must be considered as uncertain in some way, and
  - ) everything uncertain *depends* on something. *Dependence* then is the great law of this class of relations, as *Independence* is of actual facts.
  - ) And as the Fact-mood or Indicative indicates a fact, not depending, but actual and certain; so there is a Mood to show *dependence*, and the verb is then said to be in the Subjoined

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- ) *What do we want to express besides facts?*
  - ) *Every verb stating a fact is in what mood?*
  - ) *Every thing not stated as a fact must be viewed in what light?*

- (4) or Subjunctive mood; because every thing dependent must be dependent on something, and *subjoined* to it.
- (5) These relations, however, of dependence and independence, that is, of Subjunctive and Indicative mood, slide into one another very often so imperceptibly, that it is a matter of indifference till written, whether a thing is stated in its certain or uncertain aspect. Thus, in the sentences,

Follow wherever you  $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{are} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{may be} \end{array} \right\}$  led;

the words 'are led,' state the being led as a certainty; the words 'may be led,' transfer the uncertainty of the place whither, to the action of leading itself. In almost every instance, excepting a purely imaginary case, it is possible to keep the notion of uncertainty and dependence separate from the verb. In English especially, a vast number of instances, which in other languages have every shade of dependence and uncertainty

- (7) marked by the Subjunctive mood, are stated broadly as facts taking place under given cir-

- (4) *What mood is the verb then said to be in?*
- (5) *What then is the broad difference between the Indicative and Subjunctive moods?*
- (6) *Is it always very clearly marked?*
- (7) *What is a common practice in English?*

cumstances, or at a given time, and are not Subjunctive. Thus, 'If they are long at peace the young men go.' The first clause, 'if,' &c., which contains the condition, would in Latin be Subjunctive, with somewhat the sense of, 'If they may chance to be.' In English, however, the notion of chance or uncertainty is kept separate from the verb, and the thing spoken of is assumed to be a fact, and the verb stands in the Fact-mood, not affected by the conditional particle. But this is a rule

- (8) both in Latin and English, that *when a consequence invariably follows on given conditions, both clauses will be Indicative.* Thus, 'If it thunders it lightens.'

On the same principle, *When a consequence in*

- (9) *the particular instance certainly follows on given conditions, both clauses may be Indicative.* Thus, 'If he walks fast he will be tired.'

Following out this, *It will be found possible to*

- (10) *put every thing excepting a purely imaginary case as certainly happening, on given conditions of time, or circumstances, with the verb in the Indicative in both clauses.*

That is the 1st clause which contains the Con-

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- (8) *When is a conditional sentence Indicative both in English and Latin?*  
 (9) *What follows from admitting this principle?*  
 (10) *What sort of sentence alone does not come under this classification?*

- (11) dition, whether put last in the sentence or  
 (12) not. The term 'first,' referring to the sense, not to the arrangement of the words in the sentence.

By the first rule, No Theorem of Euclid could be cast correctly in a Subjunctive form.

Nothing stated as an actual fact will be Subjunctive, whatever the appearances may be. Thus, '*He may go.*' 'May,' the present tense of the Fact-mood or Indicative, equivalent to, 'He is permitted ;' an actual fact.

Every sentence containing a pure supposition and its consequence, will have both clauses Subjunctive with Past Tenses of the verb of mood in both.

- (13) In every pure supposition\*, which implies that the thing supposed is not to be, the clause of the supposed condition, and the clause of the consequence or thing following on that supposition, will both be in the Subjunctive mood.  
 (14) Both clauses employing *Past* tenses of the verbs of mood. Thus 1st clause, 'If I might

- (11) *What is the first clause in a sentence?*  
 (12) *Why so called?*  
 (13) *In a pure supposition what mood is used?*  
 (14) *In what Tenses will the verbs of mood always be?*

\* The term '*Pure Supposition*' is used in this work to signify a supposition the condition of which implies that it cannot be.

run' (but I may not); 2nd clause, 'I should be in time.'

To be parsed, or given account of, as follows:  
'Might run.' 'Run,' original form or infinitive mood of the verb.

'Might,' Past Tense, &c. of the auxiliary verb 'may,' forming in combination with 'run' a Subjunctive mood in the 1st clause of a supposition.

Any supposition which contains no implied impossibility or denial in itself, may have whichever clause it is wished to state most forcibly, stated as a fact with the verb in the Indicative or Fact-mood.

In the preceding example the whole matter is treated as what, though possible, is not to be, and the construction of that example is then the strictly correct construction.

- (1) But very often the supposition does not imply
- (2) impossibility or denial of any sort, but merely more or less uncertainty; and though that which is not to be, cannot correctly be taken for granted or correctly put in the Indicative, an uncertainty is very often taken for granted, either
- (3) as certain under given conditions, or in order

- (1) *Do all suppositions imply impossibility or denial?*
- (2) *What do they often imply?*
- (3) *In such instances, is part of the supposition ever assumed to be certain?*

*Why?*



- to add vividness and reality to the statement. Where then the supposition merely implies uncertainty, part will not unfrequently be
- (4) taken for granted, and consequently put in the Indicative mood. Thus, in the 1st clause, 'If I ran;' 2nd clause, 'I should be in time.' 1st clause, 'If here you housed him;' 2nd clause, 'Here he would have been.' Both these first Clauses are positive and equivalent to, state { 'my running' 'your housing him' as a fact, such and such a consequence would follow. Whenever an Indicative is put in either clause of
  - (5) a Supposition, it implies that that clause is assumed as a fact. An Indicative, therefore,
  - (6) ought never to be used in a pure supposition the terms of which imply that the supposed case is not to happen.

It will happen, however, much more frequently that the Consequence will be represented as certain with its verb in the Indicative, following on an uncertain condition in the 1st Clause, with its verb in the Subjunctive. As, 1st, 'If *it should* rain' (possible); 2nd, '*I will* not go.' 1st, 'If *I should* pay your worship blows again' (possible); 2nd, 'Perchance *you will* not bear them patiently.'

- 
- (4) *If so, how is the verb affected?*
  - (5) *What does an Indicative in the clause of a supposition imply?*
  - (6) *When is it not correct to use an Indicative?*

Again, in a supposed case the sentence often

- 1) appears to consist of but one clause, the condition standing as the Subject, where the condition is not improbable. Thus, 'It would make a man mad as a buck to be so bought and sold.' Here the condition is implied in the words 'to be,' &c., which are equivalent to, grant a man was so bought, rather implying that he is so.

'I should kick being kicked,' is a somewhat similar example, equivalent to, 'If I was kicked (no improbability) I should kick.'

- 2) Moreover, the conditional, or 1st Clause, is very often not expressed but understood. As, '*I would not change this hue except to steal your thoughts*;' that is, 1st Clause, 'If I could.' 'Dead! he would have clapped in an arrow at twelve score;' that is, 1st Clause, 'If he had been required to do so.'
- 3) Sometimes indeed it is not necessary or convenient to fill up these suppressed conditional clauses; it is sufficient to recollect that this sort of sentence implies a suppressed condition, and to say concerning it, 'would,' a Subjunctive

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- 4) *Sometimes the sentence seems to be but one clause, explain this.*
  - 5) *When will the condition stand as the subject?*
  - 6) *Is the conditional clause always expressed?*
  - 7) *Or the consequence?*  
*Does this signify?*

mood,' &c. in a Supposition, first clause understood or suppressed.

- (4) Occasionally the second clause or consequence is understood; as, 'If I were covetous, how am I so poor?' The complete sentence would be, 'If I were covetous I should be rich, how then,' &c.
- (1) A *probable conjecture*, if subjunctively expressed, will be generally expressed by present subjunctives. But both clauses will seldom be
- (2) in the Subjunctive Mood; as, 'If thou keep promise (as I expect you will) I shall end this strife.'

*Of 'May,' &c. in a 1st Clause.*

No Present Tense of a verb of Mood will be Subjunctive in the Conditional or 1st Clause.

As whenever a pure Supposition is made, the

- (1) Past Tenses must be used, and this is the only
  - (2) instance which absolutely requires subjunctive
- 
- (1) *When the conjecture is very probable, what will the construction be?*
  - (2) *Will both clauses often be subjunctive?*
  - (3) *Why not?*
  - (1) *What is the special mark of a pure supposition? If Present Tenses are used, what do we know at once?*
  - (2) *What is the only instance which must have Subjunctives?*

moods, it will much simplify matters whenever all doubtful cases can be made to fall under one head. Now in theory there is nothing to hinder every 1st Clause of a conditional sentence, where the verb is in the

- (4) *Present Tense*, having that verb in the Indicative or Fact-mood, the Conditional particle
- (3) being only equivalent to '*grant the fact.*' In practice it will be found that every Present Tense of an auxiliary verb in such 1st Clauses can be thus dealt with. Let this then be a rule.
- (5) *No Present Tense of an auxiliary verb will be Subjunctive in a 1st Clause.* Thus, 'If I may go,' &c. ; 'May go,' is equivalent to '*am permitted to go,*' and '*may,*' is a regular verb in the Indicative or Fact-mood.

*The Dependent Clause, 'I walk that I may,' &c.*

Whenever auxiliary verbs of Mood occur in the dependent Clause they are Subjunctives.

Hitherto we have treated of supposed cases and their modifications, in which the sentence is divided more or less expressly into two separ-

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- (3) *What is the conditional particle often equivalent to?*
  - (4) *When a thing is taken for granted, what mood will the verb be in?*
  - (5) *What is the rule with respect to the present tense of the auxiliaries in a first clause?*



In some few instances, the verb 'may' in the dependent clause is emphatic, and equivalent to 'is permitted,' it must then be Indicative.

- (8) The reason why dependent clauses, such as 'that he is come,' are not Subjunctive, and therefore do not require verbs of mood, will appear if we consider that such clauses represent a simple noun. Thus, 'he is come,' is equivalent to 'his arrival.' Whereas, if we write 'that he may come,' this equals 'the possibility of his coming.' Now the notion of mere 'possibility' is one of those very distinctions which mark off the Subjunctive from the Fact-mood.

Whenever 'that' equals 'in order that,' the dependent verb must be Subjunctive.

*The Subjunctive. 'I should say.'*

The Subjunctive Mood is used to express an opinion in a modest and inoffensive manner.

From the notion of uncertainty and doubt being a prevailing one in the Subjunctive mood, has

- 1) arisen in most languages its use in giving an opinion, as, 'I should say,' &c. Not that any

- 
- 8) *How comes it, that after the same first clause and conjunction, there can be either an Indicative or Subjunctive?*

- 1) *What mood do you use in giving an opinion?*

- (2) uncertainty is necessarily implied, but it is felt to be too abrupt to put out an opinion
- (3) positively at once; as, 'I say.' Hence arose the use of the Subjunctive to soften the harshness of the direct statement. The Sub-
- (4) junctive mood therefore is used to express an opinion in a modest and inoffensive manner, as, 'It may be doubted whether Bacon did justice to him.'

The Subjunctive Mood is used in prayers and wishes.

- (1) The Subjunctive Mood will be used in prayers and wishes, as, 'For ever may my knees grow
- (2) to the earth.' Properly speaking, every wish has a verb or exclamation of wishing suppressed; thus, 'I pray that for ever,' &c., would be the sentence completed; and the verb of mood
- (4) is really in the dependent clause.

- 
- (2) *Is any uncertainty really implied?*
  - (3) *Why is not the Indicative used?*
  - (4) *What is the meaning of the Subjunctive in such sentences?*
  - (1) *How will prayers and wishes be expressed?*
  - (2) *Is the construction of the sentence generally complete?*
  - (3) *When completed, what clause will the Subjunctive be in?*
  - (4) *And what will be the true explanation of the mood?*

- (1) In every verb the Present Tense Subjunctive may be *formally* expressed by cutting off the affixes which mark Person in the Fact-mood or Indicative. As, 'If thou walkest,' Fact-mood. 'If thou walk, if he walk,' Subjunctive. As, 'There take thou that till thou *bring* better news.' 'If your will *pass*, I shall both find your lordship judge and juror.' The old
- (2) Present Indicative of the verb 'to be,' is used
- (3) sometimes as a Present Subjunctive to the
- (4) verb 'I am,' though found in its original sense occasionally, and 'I were,' &c. is always used
- (5) as the Past Tense Subjunctive of the same verb. Thus, 'If *he were* living I would try
- (6, 7) him yet.'

'O were' is the proper Subjunctive of the defective verb 'was.'

The rules then which decide whether a combination is Subjunctive or not, are these:

1st. *No sentence will have either clause Subjunc-*

- (1) *How is the Present Tense Subjunctive formally expressed?*
- (2) *Has the verb 'I am' ever a formal Subjunctive Present?*
- (3) *What is 'I be' originally?*
- (4) *Is it ever used in its original sense?*
- (5) *Has 'I am' a Past Tense Subjunctive?*
- (6) *What is 'I were' originally?*
- (7) *Is it strictly used in its original sense?*



*tive when a consequence invariably follows on given conditions. As, 'If it thunders, it lightens.'*

2nd. *Nothing stated as a fact will be Subjunctive, whatever the appearances may be. As, 'He may go.' Fact-mood.*

1st. *Every sentence containing a pure supposition will have the clauses of the condition and consequence both Subjunctive, with past tenses of the verb of mood in both. As,*

*'If the skin were parchment, and the blows you gave were ink,  
Your own handwriting would tell you what I think.'*

2nd. *Any supposition which contains no implied impossibility or denial in itself, may have the conditional or 1st clause with the verb in the Indicative or Fact-mood, the condition being taken for granted, whilst the consequence or 2nd clause may still be Subjunctive. As, 'If here you housed him, here he would have been.'*

3rd. *Often still the consequence will be stated as a fact, whilst the 1st clause is Subjunctive. As, 'If I should pay your worship blows again, perchance you will not bear them patiently.'*

*No present tense of a verb of mood will be Subjunctive in the conditional or 1st clause.*

4th. *Whenever auxiliary verbs of mood occur in the dependent clause, they are Subjunctives. As, 'Superfluous branches we lop away, that bearing boughs may live.'*

5th. *The Subjunctive mood is used to express an opinion in a modest and inoffensive manner.*

*As, 'I should say,' not, 'I say.'*

6th. *The Subjunctive mood is used in wishes and prayers. 'As, For ever may my knees grow to the earth.'*

It is difficult sometimes to fix the mood of questions. This difficulty may be got over by putting the clause in a direct manner with the question last. Thus, 'How were they lost? They were lost. How? Would not this do well? This would do well, would it not?'

Not unfrequently exclamatory expressions act as verbs, and have dependent clauses. *As, 'Good heavens that nobles should such stomachs bear.' 'Good heavens' is equal to, 'How I wonder,' or some such phrase.*

It must be borne in mind, that 'would,' when in the Indicative or Fact-mood, is the Past Tense, and equivalent to '*wished*,' not to '*wishes*,' excepting in the single expression, '*I would*,' which has become a Present by usage. Because in Subjunctive clauses, '*would*' cannot unfrequently be rendered as equivalent to '*wishes*;' but this is not allowed; as, '*He prays but faintly, and would be denied.*' If '*would*' was a Present here, it would make sense as a regular verb in the Indicative or Fact-mood; but its being a Past Tense, which does not make sense, marks it at once as Subjunctive with a suppressed 1st Clause. The

real difficulty of this, and many similar instances, arises from the fact, that in sense the verb is not properly auxiliary at all, but the Subjunctive of its own verb, and equivalent to '*would wish*;' the auxiliary sense of mood, and the non-auxiliary sense of the original verb, being confusedly blended together in the same word in the same passage. In the absence of clearer marks and formal Moods, I trust these will be sufficient to enable every one in doubtful instances, which are numerous in all languages, to examine his ground, and give a reason for his opinion in any particular example.

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### SUBJUNCTIVE CONSTRUCTIONS.

#### *The Supposition.*

'But *should* she thus be stolen away from you, it *would* be much vexation to your age.'

'*Were* you well served, you *would* be taught your duty.'

'*I would not spare* my brother in this case, if he *should* scorn me so apparently.'

'If you *were* civil and knew courtesy, you *would* not do me so much injury.'

'If he *would* despise me, *I would* forgive him.'

'If he *should* break his day, what *should* I gain?'

'If *I could* add a lie unto a fault, *I would* deny it.'

*'If he were living, I would try him yet.'*

*'If he were honest, he were much goodlier.'*

*'I were but little happy, if I could say how much.'*

*'If I should live a thousand years, I never should forget it.'*

*First Clause understood.*

*'I would you were half so honest, men's prayers then (if you were) would seek you, not their fears.'*

*'Now I dare not say I have one friend alive, (if I were to say it) thou would'st disprove it.'*

(If served properly) *'He would have chipped bread well.'*

*'Welcome is banishment, (if I were to die) welcome were my death.'*

*'It would seem strange unto him (if it were done) when he waked.'*

*'I would not change this hue (if I could), except to steal your thoughts.'*

*'Gold were as good as twenty orators.'* (If it were given).

*'Grief would have tears.'* (If it were gratified).

*'I would I were thy bird, Sweet, so would I, yet (if you were) I should kill thee with much cherishing.'*

*Second Clause understood.*

*'If I were covetous, (I should be rich) how am I so poor?'*

'And out of doubt you do me now more wrong  
than (you would do me) *if you had made waste of*  
all I have.'

'What (would be the risk) *if it tempt you toward*  
the flood, my lord, and there assume some other  
horrible form.'

*First Clause Indicative.*

'If you *had* your eyes, you *might* fail of knowing  
me.'

'If *I answer not*, you *might* haply think  
Tongue-tied ambition yielded.'

'If you *did know* to whom I gave the ring,  
You *would abate* the strength of your displeasure.'

'If you *had known* the virtue of the ring,  
You *would not* then have parted with the ring.'

'If *I had my mouth*, I *would bite*.'

'I *should flout* him, if he *writ* to me.'

'If your leisure *served*, I *would speak* with you.'

'If I *thought* that, I'd *forswear* it.'

'If you *prized* my favour, you *would not*,' &c.

'*Had I* it written, I *would tear* the word.'

'An if a man *did need* a poison now,  
Here lives a caitiff wretch *would sell* it him.'

'If you but *said it*, 'twere as deep with me.'

*Second Clause Indicative.*

'*Should I have wished* a thing, it *had been* this.'

'Though I *should die*, I *will not*.'

'Were it further off, I'll *pluck* it down.'

'If I *should pay* your worship blows again,  
Perchance you *will not bear* them patiently.'

*'Were the world mine, Demetrius being bated,  
The rest I'll give to be to you translated.'*

*'Thou wrongst thyself, if thou should'st strive to  
choose.*

*'An I might live to see thee married once  
I have my wish.'*

*'I'll speak to it, though hell itself should gape.'*

*'They will say afterwards, if they should grow,' &c.*

*'Nor will it yield to Norway or the Pole  
A ranker rate, should it be sold in fee.'*

*The Condition implied.*

*'I should blush, I know,  
To be overheard and taken napping so.'*

*(If I was overheard.)*

*'Twere pity they should lose their father's land.'*

*'It were better you troubled him.'*

*'To fly the boar before the boar pursues,  
Were to incense the boar to follow us.'*

*'I should kick being kicked, and being at that pass  
You would keep from my heels, and beware of an ass.'*

*'I would outstare the sternest eyes that look  
To win thee, lady.'*

*'And yet to be afraid of my deserving,  
Were but a weak disabling of myself.'*

*'I would lose all to deliver you.'*

*'But for your company,  
I would have been a bed an hour ago.'*

*Probable Condition and consequence.*

*'If fortune serve me, I'll requite this kindness.'*

*'If it prove so, I will be gone the sooner.'*

'If the wind *blow* any way from shore,  
*I will not harbour* in this town to-night.'

'If thou *keep* promise, *I shall end* this strife.'

'If your *will pass*,  
*I shall both find* your lordship judge and juror.'

'If she *agree* within her scope of choice  
*Lies my consent.*'

'*I'll look* to like, if looking liking *move*;

'Or if he *do*, it *needs must* be by stealth.'

'*I'll cross* it, though it *blast me*.'

'What if it *tempt* you toward the flood, my lord,  
 And there *assume* some other horrible form.'

'If it *live* in your memory,  
*Begin* at this line.'

'For murder, though it *have* no tongue, *will speak*.'

'If he but *blench*,  
*I know my course*.'

#### *Dependent Clauses.*

'Pray heaven he *prove* so when you come to him.'

'I wonder much  
*That you would put* me to this shame and trouble.'

'Look thou *meet* me ere the first cock crow.'

'And from each other look thou *lead them* thus.'

'O that clear honour  
*Were purchased* by the merit of the wearer.'

'Here take thou that till thou *bring* better news.'

'You swore to me  
*That you would wear* it till the hour of death.'

'And tell them there thy fixed foot shall grow  
Till thou *have* audience.'

'O teach me how *I should* forget to think.'

'Let me stand here till thou *remember* it.'

'Parting is such sweet sorrow,  
That I shall say good night *till it be* morrow.'

'He said *he would*.'

'See thou *deliver* it to my lord and father.'

### OF MOOD.

*The Imperative. 'Walk home.'*

- (1) There is one more relation requiring to be expressed, that of commanding actions. This
- (2) gives rise to an Imperative or Commanding
- (3) Mood; which however, in English, only has a
- (4) second Singular and Second Plural; as,

Walk. 2nd Sing.

Walk. 2nd Plu.

- A command to a third person or persons is conveyed in English by the formula, Let him,
- (5) or them, do so and so.

The Moods, then, or changes and combinations of the verb to denote the manner in which an action is viewed as taking place, are as follows:

- (1) *What other relation requires to be expressed?*
- (2) *Does the simple verb express it?*
- (3) *What is this mood called?*
- (4) *In what persons alone is it used?*
- (5) *How are other commands given?*



*The Fact-mood, or Indicative, which indicates a fact as actual.*

*The Subjunctive, which denotes supposition, uncertainty, and dependence.*

*The Imperative, which denotes commands.*

*Besides the original form or root of the Verb, which is also called a Mood; namely, the Infinitive Mood.*

### THE INTERJECTION.

*Ah! Alas!*

- (1) There is one other Part of Speech called an Interjection, or *thing thrown in*; that is, an exclamation of surprise, sorrow, joy, &c. thrown suddenly into a sentence; as, Ah, Alas. Interjections generally do not affect the construction, but sometimes they act as Case-links
- (2) or Prepositions, and should then be called
- (3) Interjectional Case-links; as, 'Ah me.' Sometimes they have clauses dependent on them; as, 'O that my prayers could such affection
- (4) move;' in which instances they act as Verbs.

- (1) *What is an Interjection?*
- (2) *Does an Interjection affect the construction properly?*
- (3) *State any instance in which it does.*
- (4) *What is it then?*
- (5) *State another instance.*
- (6) *What is it then?*

## THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

*Of man's first disobedience, &c.*

*Sing heavenly muse who, &c.*

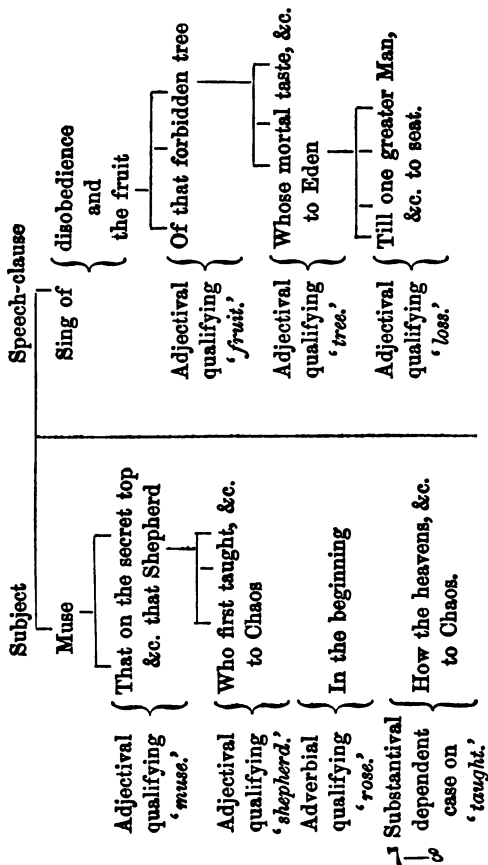
- We have thus gone through all the Parts of Speech which, as single words, represent what
- (1) passes in the mind in simple Sentences. These Parts of Speech represent every class of notion that can exist; therefore if, in any instances, notions are not expressed by single words, what-
  - (2) ever the expressions may be, they do represent some Part of Speech or other; just as a Pronoun does stand in the place of a Noun. Now, in examining words, we found only the more common relations represented *formally*: for *formal* changes depend, not on the necessity, but on the *frequency* of the relation to be expressed; just so with respect to the Parts of Speech themselves. Single words only express the most frequent notions; whilst facts
  - (3) innumerable, things, qualities, &c. are expressed by combinations of words; and these combinations are often complete sentences in themselves. Thus it is possible for a Sentence to consist of many clauses, each clause represent-

- 
- (1) *What do Parts of Speech express?*
  - (2) *If any notion is expressed in more than one word what will those words represent?*
  - (3) *Is it possible for a sentence to be made up of little sentences?*

- ing some Part of Speech, and each, as far as
- (4) construction goes, a Sentence in itself. And
  - (5) such a *Compound* Sentence cannot be con-
  - (6) sidered as mastered till every such clause is resolved into the Part of Speech it represents, whether Noun, Substantive, Adjective, Adverb, or, &c. and is stated as a Substantival, Adjectival, Verbal, Adverbial, or Interjectional clause. Let us examine on this principle the first ten lines of Milton's *Paradise Lost*.

Of Man's first disobedience and the fruit  
 Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste  
 Brought death into the world and all our woe,  
 With loss of Eden, till one greater Man  
 Restore us and regain the blissful seat,  
 Sing, heavenly Muse, that on the secret top  
 Of Oreb, or of Sinai, didst inspire  
 That Shepherd, who first taught the chosen seed,  
 In the beginning how the heavens and earth  
 Rose out of Chaos.

- 
- (4) *What is such a sentence called?*
  - (5) *What are its parts called?*  
*What is a sentence called the parts of which are single words?*
  - (6) *In a compound sentence what must be done?*  
*Can there be any clause which does not stand for some part of speech?*



These clauses might be still further divided into their component parts, but the above are sufficient as a specimen.

## OF VOICE.

*I am loved.*

A verb is said to be in a Voice when it shews whether one *acts* or is *acted on*. There are two Voices. These Voices are called the Active Voice, and the Passive Voice, or Voice of Endurance.

There is no formal Passive Voice in English.

- (2) There is a necessity for expressing not only what we do, but also what is done to others or ourselves.

In some languages, the Verb expresses both these distinctions *formally* throughout all its

- (1) tenses and moods, and is then said to be in  
 (3) the Active voice, when it expresses acting on others; and to be in the Passive, or Enduring  
 (4) voice, when it expresses being acted on by  
 (6) others. There is no formal Passive voice in  
 (5) English, though there is one Passive word, the Passive Participle; as, Loved. This necessity

- (1) *What is the meaning of Voice ?*  
 (2) *What necessity gives rise to it ?*  
 (3) *What voice is a verb said to be in when it speaks of 'action on' ?*  
 (4) *What voice is a verb in when it denotes 'being acted on by' ?*  
 (5) *What is the only Passive word in English ?*  
 (6) *Is there a formal Passive voice in English ?*

- (7) finds expression through auxiliary Verbs joined to the Passive Participle; as, 'I am loved,' &c. The words ought to be accounted for separately, and then it may be said, if required. Combination representing Present Tense, Passive voice, 1st Person, Singular Number, of the verb 'to love.' These combinations however require no new rules, but follow all the laws of the simple verbs.
- 

## MISCELLANEA.

*Nouns.*

Such names as denote any of the individuals that are contained in a class of things, are called *Common Nouns*; as, Tree, Gate.

The names of persons and places are called *proper names*; as, London, Henry.

An abstract noun, is the name of a *quality* or *property*; as, *virtue*, conceived by the mind as existing by itself.

The names of things that really do exist, as, *man*, are called Concrete Nouns.

*That.*

The word '*That*' is puzzling sometimes, as it does the work of three distinct words.

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- (7) *How is the necessity for one supplied?*

1st. It is a Demonstrative Pronoun; as, 'This clerk said yea, *that other* nay.'

2nd. It is a Relative Pronoun; as, 'Why dost thou wrong her *that* did ne'er wrong thee?'

3rd. It is a Conjunction; as, 'I wonder much *that* you would put me to this shame and trouble.'

*Participial Substantives.*

'Thou hast been as one *in suffering* all that suffers nothing.'

It is very necessary to observe carefully the Participial Substantives, which in form differ in no respect from Participles; and when of the active form govern the cases of their respective verbs, but yet are used exactly as nouns. 1st. They have Articles and Adjectives joined to them.

2nd. They stand as the subject of sentences, or are governed by Verbs and Prepositions or Case-links. They are like Participles therefore in form, and in sometimes governing a case.

But in every other respect Nouns, capable of being limited by articles, qualified by Adjectives, standing as Subjects, and being governed by Verbs and Case-links or Prepositions; as, 'This sudden *sending him* away must seem deliberate.'

'He grew into his seat;  
And to most wondrous *doing* brought his horse.

*Had—Had.*

*Were—Were.*

A very common way in English of expressing a supposed case which *nearly* took place, but did not

to represent it as actually a past thing; but for a preventing circumstance also actually past, the Past Indicative '*had*' being used in both clauses; as, 'Which *had* returned to the inheritance of Fortinbras had he been conqueror.'

This gives great vividness and reality to the supposition. And in fact, in English, this Indicative construction has become, to all intents and purposes, Subjunctive in sense.

It is not uncommon to find the Subjunctive '*were*' used in the 2nd Clause of a Sentence, with the sense of 'would be,' or 'would have been;' as, 'If he were honester, he were much goodlier.'

### *Ought.*

The word '*ought*' is an example of the changes of sense brought about by usage. '*Ought*,' is properly the Perfect Tense of the verb to *owe*, with the sense, '*was debtor*.' It is now used as a present, with the sense 'is (morally) debtor;' 'His duty is;' as, 'The watch ought to offend no man.' Notwithstanding this, in the expression, 'He ought to have done it,' and the like, it retains its original past tense. Thus we have the word '*ought*' acting both as a Present and a Past Tense according to the context.

### *The Present Passive.*

It will be found on examination, that the combination which has been called the Present Tense Passive, is only a Present Tense as far as telling the present state of a completed action. But where



it is necessary to express the strictly present sense of the state of an action going on, it gives us no assistance. To meet this difficulty, the English language either employs the round-about combination of the Participle of the auxiliary verb 'to be,' with the Passive Participle; as, 'The house *is being built*,' an expression which, in reality, declares that a thing is going on, and finished at the same time; or else it makes the Present Participle Active serve in a Passive sense; as, 'The house *is building*,' 'Corn *is selling*,' 'Lodgings *are letting*.'

### Tables.

NOUNS generally form their plural number by adding *s* and *es* to the form of the singular number.

Most nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change the *f* or *fe* into *ves* to form the plural number; as, *calf*, *calves*, &c.

A few nouns take the termination *en*; as *ox*, *oxen*, &c.

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change the *y* into *ies* for the plural; as, *duty*, *duties*.

Nouns are thus declined :

	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Subject Form</i>	Friend	Friends.
<i>Possessive Case</i>	Friend's	Friends'.
<i>Dependent Case</i>	Friend	Friends.
<i>Subject Form</i>	Child	Children.
<i>Possessive Case</i>	Child's	Children's.
<i>Dependent Case</i>	Child	Children.

	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Subject Form</i>	Lady	Ladies.
<i>Possessive Case</i>	Lady's	Ladies'.
<i>Dependent Case</i>	Lady	Ladies.
<i>Subject Form</i>	Calf	Calves.
<i>Possessive Case</i>	Calf's	Calves'.
<i>Dependent Case</i>	Calf	Calves.

Adjectives generally form their Comparative and Superlative degrees by adding *er* and *est* to the original form; as, *quick*, Com. *quicker*, Sup. *quickest*.

The following adjectives are irregular in the formation of the Comparative and Superlative.

Bad	}	worse	worst.
evil			
ill			
Far		farther	farthest.
Fore		former	{ foremost, first.
Good		better	best.
Hind		hinder	{ hindmost, hindermost.
In		inner	{ innermost, inmost.
Late	{	later	{ latest,
	{	latter	{ last.
Little		less	least.
Many	}	more	most.
Much			

Out	outer	{ outermost, utmost.
Up	upper	{ uppermost, upmost.

Tables of the Pronouns are given at page 42.

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## TABLES OF VERBS USED AS AUXILIARIES.

### INFINITIVE MOOD (OR ROOT).

None.

### INDICATIVE MOOD, OR FACT-MOOD.

#### *Present Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
I may	We may
Thou mayest	You may
He may	They may.

#### *Past Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
I might	We might
Thou mightest	You might
He might	They might.

# TABLES OF VERBS USED AS AUXILIARIES. 85

## INFINITIVE MOOD (OR ROOT).

None.

## INDICATIVE MOOD, OR FACT-MOOD.

### *Present Tense.*

Singular	Plural.
I can	We can
Thou canst	You can
He can	They can.

### *Past Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
I could	We could
Thou couldst	You could
He could	They could.

## INFINITIVE MOOD (OR ROOT).

None.

## INDICATIVE MOOD, OR FACT-MOOD.

### *Present Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
I shall	We shall
Thou shalt	You shall
He shall	They shall.

### *Past Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
I should	We should
Thou shouldest	You should
He should	They should.

## 86 TABLES OF VERBS USED AS AUXILIARIES.

### INFINITIVE MOOD (OR ROOT).

To will.

### INDICATIVE MOOD, OR FACT-MOOD.

#### *Present Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
I will	We will
Thou willest, or wilt	You will
He willeth, or will	They will.

#### *Past Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
I would	We would
Thou wouldest	You would
He would	They would.

The forms 'willest' and 'willeth' and the Infinitive mood are never auxiliary.

### INFINITIVE MOOD (OR ROOT).

'To be.'

### INDICATIVE MOOD, OR FACT-MOOD.

#### *Present Tense.*

#### *Old Form.*

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
I am	We are	I be	We be
Thou art	You are	Thou beest	You be
He is	They are.	He be	They be.

#### *Past Tenses.*

#### General Notion.

Singular.	Plural.
<i>I was</i>	We were
<i>Thou wast</i>	You were
<i>He was</i>	They were.

## TABLES OF VERBS USED AS AUXILIARIES. 87

### *Emphatic Time, or Perfect.*

Singular.	Plural.
I have been	We have been
Thou hast been	You have been
He has been	They have been.

### *Completed Action, or Pluperfect.*

Singular.	Plural.
I had been	We had been
Thou hadst been	You had been
He had been	They had been.

### *Future Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
I shall, or will be	We shall, or will be
Thou shalt, or wilt be	You shall, or will be
He shall, or will be	They shall, or will be

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

### *Present Tense.*

Singular	Plural.
I be	We be
Thou be	You be
He be	They be.

### *Dependent Present.*

Singular.	Plural.
I may be	We may be
Thou mayest be	You may be
He may be	They may be.

## 88 TABLES OF VERBS USED AS AUXILIARIES.

### *Past Tenses.*

#### General Notion.

Singular.	Plural.
I were	We were
Thou wert	You were
He were	They were.

### *Perfect.*

Singular.	Plural.
I could be	We could be
Thou couldst be	You could be
He could be	They could be.

Other auxiliaries, 'should,' 'would,' 'might.'

### *Pluperfect.*

Singular.	Plural.
I could have been	We could have been
Thou couldst have been	You could have been
He could have been	They could have been.

Other auxiliaries, 'should,' 'would,' 'might.'

### IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
Be	Be.

### *Participles.*

Present.	Past.
Being	Having been.

The Past Participle *been*, is seldom used out of combination.

# TABLES OF VERBS USED AS AUXILIARIES. 89

## INFINITIVE MOOD (OR ROOT).

'To have.'

## INDICATIVE MOOD, OR FACT-MOOD.

### *Present Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
I have	We have
Thou hast	You have
He has	They have.

### *Combination for Imperfect Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
I was having	We were having
Thou wast having	You were having
He was having	They were having.

### *Past tenses.*

#### General Notion.

Singular.	Plural.
I had	We had
Thou hadst	You had
He had	They had.

#### *Emphatic Past Time, or Perfect.*

Singular.	Plural.
I have had	We have had
Thou hast had	You have had
He has had	They have had.

#### *Emphatic Past Action.*

Singular.	Plural.
I did have	We did have
Thou didst have	You did have
He did have	They did have.



## 90 TABLES OF VERBS USED AS AUXILIARIES.

### *Completed Action, or Pluperfect.*

Singular.	Plural.
I had had	We had had
Thou hadst had	You had had
He had had	They had had.

### *Future Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
<i>I shall, or will have</i>	<i>We shall, or will have</i>
<i>Thou shalt, or wilt have</i>	<i>You shall, or will have</i>
<i>He shall, or will have</i>	<i>They shall, or will have.</i>

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

### *Present Tenses.*

Singular.	Plural.
I have	We have
Thou have	You have
He have	They have.

### *Dependent Present.*

Singular.	Plural.
I may have	We may have
Thou mayest have	You may have
He may have	They may have.

### *Imperfect Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
I were having	We were having
Thou wert having	You were having
He were having	They were having.

## TABLES OF VERBS USED AS AUXILIARIES. 91

### *Past Tenses.*

#### *Perfect.*

Singular.

Plural.

I could have

We could have

Thou couldst have

You could have

He could have

They could have.

Other auxiliaries 'should,' 'would,' 'might.'

#### *Pluperfect.*

Singular.

Plural.

I could have had

We could have had

Thou couldst have had

You could have had

He could have had

They could have had.

Auxiliaries as above.

### IMPERATIVE MOOD.

None.

#### *Participles.*

Present.

Past.

Having

Having had.

The Past Participle *had* is never used out of combination with a Transitive sense.

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## TABLE OF A REGULAR VERB.

## ACTIVE VOICE.

## INFINITIVE MOOD (OR ROOT).

'To love.'

## INDICATIVE MOOD, OR FACT-MOOD.

*Present Tenses.*

## General Notion.

Singular.	Plural.
I love	We love
Thou lovest	You love
He loves	They love.

*Emphatic Time.*

Singular.	Plural.
I am loving	We are loving
&c.	&c.

*Emphatic Action.*

Singular.	Plural.
I do love	We do love
Thou dost love	You do love
He does love	They do love.

*Imperfect Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
I was loving	We were loving
&c.	&c.

*Past Tenses.*

## General Notion.

Singular.	Plural.
I loved	We loved
Thou lovedst	You loved
He loved	They loved.

*Emphatic Time, or Perfect.*

Singular.	Plural.
I have loved	We have loved
&c.	&c.

*Emphatic Action.*

Singular.	Plural.
I did love	We did love.
Thou didst love	You did love
He did love	They did love.

*Completed Action, or Pluperfect.*

Singular.	Plural.
I had loved	We had loved
&c.	&c.

*Future Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
shall, or will love	We shall, or will love
&c.	&c.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

*Present Tenses.*

Singular.	Plural.
I love	We love
Thou love	You love
He love	They love.

*Dependent Present.*

Singular.	Plural.
I may love	We may love
&c.	&c.

*Imperfect Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
I were loving	We were loving
Thou wert loving	You were loving
He were loving	They were loving.

*Past Tenses.**Perfect.*

Singular.	Plural.
I could love	We could love
&c.	&c.
Other auxiliaries, 'should,' 'would,' 'might.'	

*Pluperfect.*

Singular.	Plural.
I could have loved	We could have loved
&c.	&c.

Auxiliaries as above.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
Love	Love.

## PARTICIPLES.

*Present* . Loving.

*Past* . . . Having loved.

*The Past Participle 'loved' is never used out of combination with a Transitive sense.*

## PASSIVE VOICE.

*Infinitive Mood.*

'To be loved.'

## INDICATIVE MOOD OR FACT-MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

Singular.

I am loved  
&c.

Plural.

We are loved  
&c.*Imperfect Tense.*

Singular.

I was being loved  
&c.

Plural.

We were being loved  
&c.*Past Tenses.*

## General Notion.

Singular.

I was loved  
&c.

Plural.

We were loved  
&c.*Emphatic Time or Perfect.*

Singular.

I have been loved  
&c.

Plural.

We have been loved  
&c.*Completed Action, or Pluperfect.*

Singular.

I had been loved  
&c.

Plural.

We had been loved  
&c.

## TABLE OF A REGULAR VERB:

*Future Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
I shall or will be loved	We shall or will be loved
&c.	&c.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

*Present Tenses.*

Singular.	Plural.
I be loved	We be loved
&c.	&c.

*Dependent Present.*

Singular.	Plural.
I may be loved	We may be loved
&c.	&c.

*Imperfect Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
I were being loved	We were being loved
&c.	&c.

## PASSIVE VOICE.

*Past Tenses.*

## General Notion.

Singular.	Plural.
I were loved	We were loved
&c.	&c.

*Perfect.*

Singular.	Plural.
I could be loved	We could be loved
&c.	&c.

*Other auxiliaries, 'should,' 'would,' 'might.'*

*Pluperfect.*

Singular.	Plural.
I could have been loved	We could have been loved
&c.	&c.

Auxiliaries as above.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
Be loved	Be loved.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present</i> . .	Being loved,
<i>Past</i> . . . .	{ loved and having been loved.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

The following is a list of those verbs which do not form their Past Tense and Passive Participle by adding 'd' or 'ed' to the root. Such verbs are called Irregular.

Irregular Verbs which have their Past Tense and Passive Participle alike.

Present.	Past.	Passive Participle.
Abide	abode	abode
Behold	beheld	beheld*

\* The Passive Participle 'beholden' is not now in use, except in the sense of 'bound,' 'obliged.'



Present.	Past.	Passive Participle.
Bend	bent <i>or</i> bended	bent <i>or</i> bended
Bereave	bereft <i>or</i> bereaved	bereft <i>or</i> bereaved
Beseech	besought	besought
Bind	bound	bound
Bleed	bled	bled
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build	built <i>or</i> builded	built <i>or</i> builded
Buy	bought	bought
Catch	caught	caught
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clothed <i>or</i> clad	clothed <i>or</i> clad
Creep	crept	crept
Deal	dealt <i>or</i> dealed	dealt <i>or</i> dealed
Dig	dug <i>or</i> digged	dug <i>or</i> digged
Dwell	dwelt	dwelt
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought <i>or</i> foughte
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Gild	gilt <i>or</i> gilded	gilt <i>or</i> gilded
Gird	girt <i>or</i> girded	girt <i>or</i> girded
Grind	ground	ground
Hang	hung <i>or</i> hanged	hung <i>or</i> hanged
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	heaved <i>or</i> hove	heaved <i>or</i> hoven
Hold	held	held

Present.	Past.	Passive Participle.
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	knelt <i>or</i> kneeled	knelt <i>or</i> kneeled
Lay	laid	laid
Lead	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Light	lighted <i>or</i> lit	lighted <i>or</i> lit
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Pay	paid	paid
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Say	said	said
Seek	sought	sought
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Shine	shone <i>or</i> shined	shone <i>or</i> shined
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Sit	sat	sat
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slid
Slink	slunk	slunk
Speed	sped	sped
Spend	spent	spent
Spill	spilt <i>or</i> spilled	spilt <i>or</i> spilled
Stand	stood	stood
Stick	stuck	stuck

## IRREGULAR VERBS.

Present.	Past.	Passive Participle.
Sting	stung	stung
Strike	struck	struck <i>or</i> stricken
String	strung	strung
Sweep	swept	swept
Swing	swung	swung
Teach	taught	taught
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Weep	wept	wept
Win	won	won
Wind	wound	wound
Work	wrought <i>or</i> worked	wrought <i>or</i> worked
Wring	wrung	wrung

Irregular Verbs that suffer no change for their  
Past Tense, or Passive Participle.

Present.	Past.	Passive Participle.
Burst	burst	burst
Cast	cast	cast
Cost	cost	cost
Cut	cut	cut
Hit	hit	hit
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Knit	knit	knit*
Let	let	let
Put	put	put
Rid	rid	rid
Set	set	set
Shed	shed	shed

\* Also regular.

Present.	Past.	Passive Participle.
Shut	shut	shut
Slit	slit	slit
Split	split	split
Spread	spread	spread
Thrust	thrust	thrust

Most of the other Irregular Verbs have their Present and Past Tense and Perfect Participle all dissimilar.

Present.	Past.	Passive Participle.
Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke <i>or</i> awaked	awaked
Bear, <i>to</i> <i>bring</i> } <i>forth</i> }	bore <i>or</i> bare	born
Bear, <i>to</i> } <i>carry</i> }	bore <i>or</i> bare	borne
Beat	beat	beaten
Become	became	become
Begin	began	begun
Bid	bade <i>or</i> bid	bidden <i>or</i> bid
Bite	bit	bitten
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke <i>or</i> brake	broken
Chide	chid	chidden <i>or</i> chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave, <i>to</i> } <i>cling to</i> }	clave <i>or</i> cleaved	cleaved

Present.	Past.	Passive Participle.
Cleave, <i>to split</i>	<i>clove or cleft</i>	<i>cloven or cleft</i>
Come	came	come
Crow	crew <i>or</i> crowed	crowed
Dare	durst <i>or</i> dared	dared
Do	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Drink	drank	drunk
Drive	drove	driven
Eat	ate	eaten
Fall	fell	fallen
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore	forborne
Forget	forgot	forgotten <i>or</i> forgot
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Freight	freighted	fraught
Get	got <i>or</i> gat	got <i>or</i> gotten
Give	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave	graved	graven <i>or</i> graved
Grow	grew	grown
Heave	heaved <i>or</i> hove	heaved <i>or</i> hoven
Hew	hewed	hewn <i>or</i> hewed
Hide	hid	hidden <i>or</i> hid
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laden
Lie	lay	lain
Load	loaded	loaden <i>or</i> loaded
Mow	mowed	mown <i>or</i> mowed

Present.	Past.	Passive Participle.
Quit	quit <i>or</i> quitted	quitted
Ride	rode	ridden
Ring	rang <i>or</i> rung	rung
Rise	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven
Run	ran	run
Saw	sawed	sawn <i>or</i> sawed
See	saw	seen
Seethe	seethed <i>or</i> sod	sodden
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape	shaped	shapen <i>or</i> shaped
Shave	shaved	shaven <i>or</i> shaved
Shear	sheared <i>or</i> shore	shorn <i>or</i> sheared
Show	showed	shown
Shrink	shrank <i>or</i> shrunk	shrunk
Shrive	shrove	shriven
Sing	sang <i>or</i> sung	sung
Sink	sank <i>or</i> sunk	sunk
Slay	slew	slain
Sling	slang <i>or</i> slung	slung
Smite	smote	smitten
Sow	sowed	sown <i>or</i> sowed
Speak	spoke <i>or</i> spake	spoken
Spin	span <i>or</i> spun	spun
Spit	spat <i>or</i> spit	spit, spitted, <i>or</i> spitten
Spring	sprang <i>or</i> sprung	sprung
Steal	stole	stolen
Stink	stank <i>or</i> stunk	stunk
Stride	strode <i>or</i> strid	stridden
Strive	strove	striven

Present.	Past.	Passive Participle.
Strow	strowed	strown <i>or</i> strowed
Swear	swore <i>or</i> sware	sworn
Swell	swelled	swollen <i>or</i> swelled
Swim	swam <i>or</i> swum	swum
Take	took	taken
Tear	tore <i>or</i> tare	torn
Thrive	throve	thriven
Throw	threw	thrown
Tread	trod	trodden
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Write	wrote <i>or</i> writ	written <i>or</i> writ

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## P R E F I X E S.

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### ENGLISH.

A, *on* ; as, *a-side*.  
Be, give a transitive sense to verbs ; as, *be-stride*.  
En, (em, im), gives a transitive sense ; as, *en-able*.  
For, *away, off* ; as, *for-go*.  
Fore, *before* ; as, *fore-see*.  
Gain, *against* ; as, *gain-say*.  
Mis, *error* ; as, *mis-take*.  
Out, *beyond* ; as, *out-live*.  
Over, *above* ; as, *over-do*.  
Un, *not* ; as, *un-able*.  
With, *against* ; as, *with-stand*.

### LATIN.

A, *ab, from* ; as, *a-vert, ab-solve*.  
Ad, *to* ; as, *ad-vert*, *ap-position*.  
Am, *around* ; as, *am-bient*.  
Ante, *before* ; as, *ante-cedent*.  
Bis (Bi), *in two* ; as, *bi-sect*.  
Circum, *round* ; as, *circum-volution*.  
Con, *together* ; as, *con-vert, con-volution, com-pose*.  
Contra, *against* ; as, *contra-vert*.  
De, *down* ; as, *de-volve*, *de-pose*.  
*Dis, apart* ; as, *di-vert*, *dis-pose*.



E, Ex, out ; as,	e-vert,	e-volve,	ex-pose.
Extra, beyond ; as,	extra-ordinary.		
In, in, before a verb, not, before an adjective ; as,			
ir-regular,	in-vert,	in-volve,	im-pose.
Inter, between ; as,	inter-volve,		inter-pose.
Intro, within ; as,	intro-vert.		
Juxta, near ; as,	juxta-position.		
Ob, in the way ; as,	ob-vert,	op-pose.	
Per, through ; as,	per-vert.		
Post, behind ; as,	post-pone.		
Pre, before ; as,	pre-position,		
Præter, besides ; as,	præter-natural.		
Pro, forwards ; as,	pro-pose.		
Re, back ; as,	re-vert,	re-volve ;	re-pose.
Retro, back ; as,	retro-spect.		
Se, apart ; as,	se-parate.		
Sine, without ; as,	sine-cure.		
Sub, under ; as,	sub-vert,	sup-pose.	
Subter, beneath ; as,	subter-fuge.		
Super, above ; as,	super-fluous.		
Trans, across ; as,	trans-pose.		
Ultra, beyond ; as,	ultra-montane.		

## GREEK.

A, (An), not ; as,	an-archy.
Amphi, of two, round ; as,	amphi-bious, amphi-theatre.
Ana, throughout, back ; as,	ana-logy, ana-strophe.
Anti, against ; as	anti-christian, anti-atrophe.
Apo, from ; as,	apo-state, apo-logy, apo-atrophe.

Cata, *down* ; as, *cata-logue*, *cata-strophe*.  
 Dia, *through, between* ; as, *dia-meter*, *dia-logue*.  
 Ec, *out of* ; as, *ec-logue*, *ec-lipse*.  
 En, *in, on* ; as, *en-lipse*, *en-comium*.  
 Epi, *upon, following on* ; as, *epi-logue*.  
 Hyper, *over* ; as, *hyper-critical*.  
 Hypo, *under* ; as, *hypo-critical*.  
 Meta, *change* ; as, *meta-thesis*.  
 Para, *along, contrary to* ; as, *para-lysis*, *para-dox*.  
 Peri, *round* ; as, *peri-phery*.  
 Syn, *together, with* ; as, *sym-pathy*, *syl-logism*.

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## PRINCIPAL AFFIXES.

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### ENGLISH.

#### *Of Nouns.*

Ar, *personal* ; as, *li-ar*.  
 Ard, *habit* ; as, *drunk-ard*.  
 Er, *personal* ; as, *read-er*.  
 Ery, *state* ; as, *slav-ery*,  
 Ing, *action* ; as, *bak-ing*.  
 Kin, *diminutive* ; as, *lamb-kin*.  
 Ling, *diminutive* ; as, *duck-ling*.  
 Let, *diminutive* ; as, *stream-let*.  
 Ness, *state* ; as, *good-ness*.  
 Ship, *state* ; as, *friend-ship*.

{ Ster,                      } as, { song-ster.  
 { Stress, *personal*; } song-stress.

Th, *state*; as, dep-th.

Yer, *personal*; as, law-yer.

*Of Adjectives.*

Ed, *condition*; as, wretch-ed.

En, *made of*; as, gold-en.

Ful, *full*; as, fear-ful.

Ish, *likeness*; as, child-ish.

Less, *privative*; as, shame-less.

Y, *abundance*; as, hill-y.

LATIN.

*Of Nouns.*

*Personal.*

An, Ian, as, sacrist-an, chapl-ain, histor-ian.

Ar, er, as, burs-ar, monst-er.

Ist, as, plural-ist, fatal-ist.

{ Tor, sor, } as { execu-tor, spon-sor.  
 { Trix, } execu-trix.

*Of Adjectives.*

Ial, as, inquisitor-ial.

Ious, as, censor-ious.

Ous, as, monstr-ous.

LATIN.

*Of Nouns.*

Not Personal.

Acy, as, fall-*acy*.

Ence, as, consequ-*ence*, turbul-*ence*.

Itty, as, civil-*ity*, human-*ity*, verbos-*ity*,  
polar-*ity*, captiv-*ity*, timid-*ity*, capabil-*ity*,  
regal-*ity*.

Ion, sion, tion, as, occas-*ion*, frac-*tion*.

Tude, as, longi-*tude*.

Ment, as, monu-*ment*.

Mony, as, matri-*mony*.

Or, our, as, horr-*or*, ard-*our*.

*Of Adjectives.*

Acious, as, fall-*acious*.

Tial, ent, as, consequen-*tial*, turbul-*ent*.

Il, ile, an, ose, ar, ive, id, ble, al, as, civ-*il*,  
hum-*an*, verb-*ose*, &c.

Nal, as, occasio-*nal*, fractio-*nal*.

Longitudi-*nal*.

Al, as, monument-*al*.

Ial, ious, as, matrimo-*nial*, acrimo-*nious*.

Id, ent, as, horr-*id*, horr-*ent*, ard-*ent*.

Ferous, as, somni-*ferous*.

Fic, as, terri-*fic*.

Tory, sory, as, cur-*sory*.

Esque, as, pietur-*esque*.

*Super* sure, as, pic-*ture*, cen-*sura*.

## ON LEARNING LANGUAGE.

IN studying language, it is important to remember that words are but the outward expression of what passes in the mind; and though the things which the mind can busy itself about are innumerable, the ways in which it can deal with them and put them forth in speech are few and limited. Language, in fact, may be compared to a wood with innumerable trees, but one well-trodden broad path through it, which in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred will lead the traveller right; there are also bye-paths leading to particular spots, and the pathless wood with plenty of scope for wandering and being lost. Suppose then a stranger, brought into this wood, and desiring to pass through it. The only sensible advice that could be given him would be, "Keep to the main road, beware of the thickets, avoid entangling yourself in bye-paths, or short cuts, till you are thoroughly acquainted with the general features and bearing of the country." Can any way then of teaching language be right which is not analogous to this? Ought not all the curiosities and exceptions to be passed over unexplained, until the common *every-day framework* of ordinary sentences, the *beaten path* that is, be well known? It will be time

enough then to explain and point out the apparent deviations and inconsistencies. But this is the exact contrary of the method usually pursued. The mind of the unhappy learner is stuffed with all manner of exceptions, long before he clearly knows what they are exceptions to; and with idioms countless, long before he is aware what is the general type from which they seem to depart. His bewildered brain is set floating amongst numbers of isolated cases, and unconnected facts; there is only one omission, unfortunately rather an important one, no chart or compass is given him for his guidance.

Let every teacher (who knows such things himself) boldly resolve to notice nothing till his pupils are thoroughly acquainted with the common principles of all language. There will be less show for a time, but more safety. Men with a certain reputation as scholars not unfrequently cannot give the principle of the simplest step in their parrot-like knowledge. How often, for instance, it is said, he is a very clever man himself, but he cannot teach others. In plain English, he has never been taught the principles of his knowledge, he has not thought them out for himself. The result is obtained by unceasing practice, and as that is incommunicable, others cannot benefit by it. Blind men can *feel* their way along familiar paths, but are unable to give directions to others' sight.

*Now the study of language may be looked at*

in two points of view; first, what language itself is, which it has been the endeavour of this little work to state simply; and, secondly, how we ourselves should behave with respect to it. The one being as it were the road to be travelled, the other directions for travelling on it well. A few observations on this second point will not be out of place here. First, then, let no teacher or learner pass beyond a technical or general term, such as *subject*, &c. until it has become his own natural way of expressing the thing signified by it. It would be no more absurd to have daily lessons about the *Ornithorynchus*, those engaged in such lessons being totally ignorant of the sort of animal meant, than it is to use such terms as *subject* daily, with a similar ignorance. Very often a careful examination would detect some foolish after mistake, or even habitual mental confusion, as having arisen from the practice of using technical and general terms without realizing their full meaning. No time is misspent which clears the general terms and first steps. Probably few National School classes would thoroughly master those two Terms, Subject and Predicate, without at least a month's careful training. To give such training without being wearisome is in itself an art. My own method was, when the short reading lesson was ended, to select an easy sentence to be written down by one of the boys on the black board; then the writing and spelling was criticised by the class; after that the Subject and Predicate

of that Sentence were required, with the reasons for the answers; then we left it, and proceeded to build up the sentence on which we were regularly engaged. Every lesson having *one special point as its main object*; this one point with the summing up at intervals the chain of argument, and recapitulating day by day the former links, being quite sufficient to occupy the whole time, and as much as could be done with profit to a *Class*; the first maxim of good schooling being, not to sacrifice the good of the many to the quickness of a few.

Having cleared the Terms made use of, the next great aid in difficulties will be to observe the principle on which the words of *every* Sentence are *arranged*. Now in *every* Sentence without fail *this is certain*, that the words which will most *clearly* and *forcibly* introduce to notice what the speaker wishes to make known, *will come first*; and the rest follow, according to its relative importance. It is *probable*, therefore, in any sentence that the Subject stands first; because what the speech is to be about must generally be mentioned first for *clearness*' sake; and without *clearness* nothing can be *forcible*. Viewed separately, the Predicate, or what is intended to be said, is generally the principal notion; and therefore if *force* alone were the question, to put the Predicate first would generally be the most *forcible*. But care must be taken, lest the apparent gain in *force* of this arrangement be more than counterbalanced by the *loss of clearness*. This brings out the value of



*Formal Cases.* When a language has *Formal Cases*, it gains the power of varying the arrangement of a sentence almost infinitely, without confusion, according to the relative importance of the thoughts to be expressed. Thus in the sentence, 'Cæsar killed Pompeius,' if the notion required to be expressed most strongly was, that it was *Pompeius* who was killed, a Latin boldly put it first:

Pompeium Cæsar interfecti.

Pompey Cæsar killed;

and no confusion ensues. In English this can seldom be, unless the Predicate consists of the Verb of Existence, and an adjective; as '*Great is Diana of the Ephesians;*' where any one can see the increase of force resulting from the position of the Predicate. The English language, however, has a plan for getting the Predicate first in some instances. The words '*It,*' and '*There,*' at the beginning of sentences, are often *false subjects*, mere subterfuges for getting the Predicate first in the arrangement. Thus, 'It is a good thing—

Subject.

to save a man,' equalling, 'To save &c. is.' 'There is no hope—that he will do it:' equalling, '*His* doing it is hopeless.'

Subject.

Therefore the words '*It,*' and '*There,*' are as it were sign-posts, pointing out that the Predicate follows immediately, whilst the Subject comes last. In English then, if the first word is *It*, or *There*, or

an adjective with the verb of Existence, the Predicate is generally first in the arrangement, and the Subject last. It is obvious that when Pronouns occur, as they have formal cases, there is much more liberty of arrangement, as no confusion can ensue. Any dependent noun, however, can be put first as the Subject, by casting the sentence into a Passive shape; as, 'Pompey was killed by Cæsar.' This is a common way in English of getting the emphatic word first.

Again, in examining a sentence, if there is any difficulty, whatever conjecture on the point appears most probable, it can be tested in the following manner. Let the learner, instead of the word or words which are difficult, substitute others easier, which *certainly* are, what he conjectures the expression he doubts about to be. Thus, in the sentence, '*Will he come fast?*' say he thinks '*fast*' an Adverb, but is in doubt; let him substitute an unmistakable Adverb; for instance, '*quickly*;' if that which is substituted exactly fills the grammatical place of the original expression, the conjecture is probably right; if it does not, it must be wrong.

Again, there is a difficult sentence to be mastered; how many let their minds float about at random over it; and unless they find it out by some sudden flash, do nothing. Instead of this, let the learner seize at once on some point he is certain, or nearly certain, about; say the subject, or the principle verb of the Predicate; and try whether the

rest agrees with this, and makes sense. It is very seldom, indeed, that both Subject and Predicate are difficult to unravel in the same sentence. At all events, let him examine whether there is more than *one* word that *can* be a Predicate, or more than *one* word that can be a Subject; let him decide as to which shall be his certainty; say the subject is, then what verb can possibly form the Predicate? Is it transitive? If so, where is the case? Is the case qualified? and so on; adding, by degrees, the rest till all coheres. This then is a rule. Let all uncertainties be tried as to their agreement with some certainty. If there is no certainty, let the most probable guess be assumed as certain for the experiment.

Again, it is a great thing to know what the difficulty really is, and where. When this is found, let all words, or clauses, be put out of sight for the time, excepting the word, or combination, that is puzzling. This often clears the matter. As an assistance in doing this, let it be borne in mind, that whenever a relative occurs, it is certain that the clause, in which the relative is, is a complete sentence in itself, as far as grammatical construction goes; and therefore will not influence grammatically any other part of the sentence. In any difficulty then, that clause may be set apart, and shut out from the rest, and examined separately.

Very often the difficulty arises from some part of a sentence not being before the eye, but under-

stood. Let every clause therefore, when this is the case, be written out with its full complement of words. This often clears the matter.

Again, much ignorance arises from rules being allowed to lie about in the mind as mere dry statements. This should never be permitted. Let the learner always frame *for himself* an actual speech or formula, the easiest possible, which is an *example* of the rule, to try his doubtful cases by. Thus, if the rule is; Every pure supposition will have both clauses Subjunctive with past tenses of the auxiliary verbs, or verb of Existence, let him give it life by having a model supposition to refer to; as, '*If I were foolish, I should learn the rules like a parrot.*' Or if a question is asked on any point, let him at once make a sentence which represents the required instance, and examine that; this plan will marvelously tend to the producing an answer. Thus, say the question is asked. 'Explain the arrangement of a sentence which begins with the word *There.*' Let him at once write down such a sentence, and examine it; and so on.

Let therefore all uncertainties be tested by some certainty, real or assumed.

Let the difficulty be hunted out, and every thing else put aside till that is cleared.

Let the suppressed words of a sentence, if needful, be filled in.

Let all rules have reality given them by being embodied in the form of simple examples.

Never let Technical, or General Terms, be passed over until they are completely understood.

Never let the mind float about at random; but let it be fixed at once on some *one thing* to start with.

These rules, regularly acted on, will carry the learner through most labyrinths securely.

## APPENDIX.

### ON MOOD.

THE human mind has the power not only of recognizing single facts, whether past, present, or future; but also of seeing the connexion between them and their relations to one another. And not only so, but it is able to frame circumstances more or less imaginary, and to follow out various conditions and the consequences arising from them. It is manifest at once, that there is a broad and well-defined line between every thing stated as an actual fact, and every thing merely imagined by the mind, or viewed as subject to any condition whatever. This broad distinction is the distinction which is represented by the Fact-mood or Indicative on the one hand, and by the Subjunctive mood on the other. And in theory it is plain enough. But directly we come to practice, we find every shade of difference, varying from absolute certainty to any amount of uncertainty of time, place, or conditions.

It is important to bear in mind that, abstractedly, it is an open question how these changes ought to be expressed; whether the verb should express them at all; and if so, in what degree, by corresponding changes of form, or otherwise. And moreover, that in no language would the verb, or any modification of the verb, deal with more than a part

of these subtle shades of sense ; the rest would be expressed by various particles. Those variations, which the verb or its modifications do express, are expressible in two ways. Some languages express them by changing the form of the verb. Some by combining auxiliary verbs with it. Where the form is changed, the Mood is obvious at once. Where auxiliary verbs are used, unless they are confined to this office, there will be much uncertainty whether, in any instance, they represent mood or not. Two different tendencies develope themselves from this. The tendency of a language with formal moods will be to increase the modal power of the verb, and to delight in making it express subtle modal distinctions. The tendency of a language without formal moods will be in an exactly contrary spirit, to simplify as much as possible the ambiguity of the modal combinations, by employing as few as possible, and resorting more and more to particles to express clearly those subtleties which the verb cannot express without confusion. Where the moods are formal, it is of course easy to see what mood is used in any particular instance ; but by no means equally easy, very often, to determine the precise force of the mood ; and still more often the distinction, when perceptible, is so slight, that it does not in the least affect the general sense, and cannot be translated into another language without the most clumsy circumlocution. A language without formal moods will obviously neglect these minute peculiarities, *and set down* all such instances under some one

definite head. Not because they might not perhaps be classed otherwise, neither denying that another language does legitimately class them otherwise, but merely claiming the same right to follow out its own tendency to simplify, which it concedes to other languages to follow out theirs. For if in English, with no formal moods to guide us, we undertake to make the verb in combination define the same subtle shades of sense which other languages convey by form, there is no clue to the labyrinth. Like the shield which was gold on one side, and silver on the other, about which the comers from opposite sides fought to the death, our moods will be doublefaced, and the best grammarians shall contradict each other; one coming from the Latin side with his rule, another from some other language with his rule, which, after all, if correct, only serves to shew what the case *may* be, not what it necessarily is. Let us then briefly examine the most doubtful cases of English moods on their own intrinsic merits, bearing in mind, 1st, that the question we have to deal with is, not whether they may be subjunctively expressed, but whether, as far as practice goes, they must be; and 2ndly, what is the most convenient classification which solves the instances as they occur without violating any universal law. First then let us take the conditional clause of a sentence containing a probable condition and its consequence. Now the difficulty in English arises from the fact, that the same words in the same sort of combination can stand either as Indicatives or



Subjunctives, the sense and the structure of the sentence alone determining which they are in any instance. If they were always Indicative or always Subjunctive in certain positions, the confusion and difficulty would be removed. In a pure supposition for instance, where the verbs of both clauses are always Past Tenses and Subjunctives, or even in any modification of such a sentence, as the sense and structure of the sentence is pretty definite, the chances of error are much lessened; but where the condition and consequence are probable, and Past Tenses are not used, and it is almost matter of indifference whether Subjunctives or Indicatives are used, unless some definite rule be discovered for doubtful cases, the matter is much more complicated. Now in every instance, excepting a Pure Supposition, the condition can be stated as certain at a given time, a given place, or given circumstances; that is, assume for certain so and so, the rest follows. 'If,' and the conditional particles in such instances merely introducing a fact to be granted, given the time, place, or circumstances as, 'If he goes, he will,' &c. 'If boys are ignorant they will be noisy.' There is no uncertainty in these, and the like instances, with regard to the main fact. 'He does go sometimes:' 'Boys are ignorant sometimes.' The condition implies that the fact is true only under given circumstances. The conditional uncertainty does not touch the fact only the universality of the fact. The fact asserted of some boys; the condition only deba

from all boys. It follows from this, that every conditional clause in which the fact can be assumed to be true, given, time, place, or circumstances, may be cast in an Indicative form; and, therefore, as a pure Supposition always has past Tenses, that no present Tense of a verb of mood need be Subjunctive in a Conditional clause. Now there is one present Tense of the verbs of mood which can be either Subjunctive or Indicative; the word 'may.' It will then much simplify matters to state as a rule, that the present tense 'may,' in a Conditional clause, is never Subjunctive; therefore, every present Tense in a Conditional clause is Indicative, excepting the *formal* Subjunctive Presents of each verb, which the eye can detect at once.

In dependent clauses, on the other hand, the same sort of reasoning leads to a contrary rule. To take for instance, dependence with respect to time. All dependence on time must be cast in one of two forms. The form must either be, *at some time or other (uncertain)*, or, *at a fixed moment (certain)*. Thus:

I will plague him till	{	he goes. Equalling a certain moment which will come. he go. Equalling a time which may or may not come.
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The same holds good with respect to place; as, I follow whither	{	he leads. A certain place. he may lead. An uncertain place.
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And in dependence of circumstance; as, 'He reads that he may be wise.'

Now in all dependent clauses, excepting some few instances where strong emphasis is laid on the word 'may,' the word 'may' denotes the uncertainty. In dependent clauses, therefore, it much simplifies matters to lay down the positive rule, that verbs of mood, whether present or past, are Subjunctive; as, the exceptions are few and strongly marked. The principle which I have endeavoured to follow out being this; that every language has a right to fix its own limits in doubtful instances, as may be most convenient, when no universal law is infringed by doing so. And all that is meant by such rules is, that they solve correctly the difficulties which occur, without intending to exclude, in some instances, every other solution as impossible or wrong.

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